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31 December 1984

# East Europe Report

POLITICAL, SOCIOLOGICAL AND MILITARY AFFAIRS

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31 December 1984

# EAST EUROPE REPORT

## POLITICAL, SOCIOLOGICAL AND MILITARY AFFAIRS

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THEFTS OF GOVERNMENT, PUBLIC PROPERTY DISCUSSED

Sofia NARODNA MLADEZH in Bulgarian 4 Nov 84 p 2

[Article by Milko Kunev: "Theft"]

[Text] It happened shortly before noon. A brand-new green Lada stopped by a sidewalk and its owner, a fashionably dressed young man, opened the trunk and began to fill it with bricks which had been piled next to a small pit dug for a telephone cable. The man had just about filled his trunk, and he had soiled his suit a little bit, when passersby happened to appear, interfered, and forced him to return the bricks. The owner of the new Lada behaved impudently, he even made threats, but when he saw that they were writing down his car license number, he put the bricks back.

This was an "ordinary" case of theft. In broad daylight, before the eyes of dozens of passersby, many of whom walked away saying: "Big deal, the fellow needs 50 or 100 bricks. Why shouldn't he take some?"

What disturbs me is that only two or three people saw the elegant man's activities as theft.

I think that there are now too many synonyms in our language for classifying behavior which our father and grandfathers used to call simply "theft." Judge for yourself: "embezzlement," "misappropriation," "illegal enrichment," "illegal taking of material production means"--all of the words and phrases which mean that someone has taken something that was not his property, that he used it and "forgot" to return it. It is curious that most of these definitions are used when they steal from the state. On a large scale, too! In a courtroom they never call a group of five or six persons, who have, let us say, embezzled 20,000 or 30,000 leva, thieves, but rather they will be defined as people "who have used state property that was entrusted to them for management for their own illegal enrichment." The fellows had embezzled, they had not stolen anything! Of course, there are terms in juridical language which outline the boundaries between theft, embezzlement, and misappropriation, but the actions essentially remain the same. That is why it seems strange to me that we can call a child who has picked a handful of plums from someone's garden a thief, and at the same time the callous scoundrel who has embezzled 20,000 through complex combinations would be referred to by some intricate compound word, where only the term "thief" is missing.

Let us be realistic: there will still be small carts and cars stealing through the cooperative fields and orchards, early in the morning, or late in the evening, and coming out with heavy trunks or crates full of apples hidden under hay. And again, the cases of serious sanctions against thieves can be counted on one's fingers: we continue to find the thefts insignificant and to believe the promises that they will never happen again.

Or is there some additional reason?

A motorized thief unloads a whole trailer full of corn in his backyard. Stolen corn? The neighbors see it, but no one sends any tip to the authorities, as he should...

Why?

There is only one answer: maybe tomorrow you will also get a chance to "find" a ton and a half of corn at some convenient place... The strange solidarity, the misunderstood interpretation of good relations among neighbors, all of this creates the preconditions necessary for the thieves to do their work in perfect peace, and to get away with only a small fine.

This is why we should forget about complex synonyms: a theft will always remain a theft.

12334

CSO: 2200/42

BULGARIA

INTERNAL AFFAIRS MINISTER CALLS FOR HIGHER DISCIPLINE

Sofia NARODEN STRAZH in Bulgarian 31 Oct 84 pp 1, 3

[Article by Lt Gen Angel Karlov, first deputy minister of internal affairs:  
"Ideological and Professional Training Are Prerequisites for High Discipline"]

[Text] The high assessment of the 12th Party Congress that those who watch over the security, tranquility and safety of the Bulgarian citizens properly repay the concern of the party and the people fills us with deserved and legitimate pride. At the same time, however, it makes it increasingly incumbent upon us to improve our work with cadres, steadily to upgrade their professional skill and combat readiness, so that in the future as well and at all times remain on the level of the steadily increasing party requirements.

A large detachment of old and experienced officials, tempered in the struggle against the violators of public law and order, are members of the security and public order bodies. With their training they serve as a model for the other state officials of a socialist type. However, with every passing year, following the path of natural cadre renovation, the number of young people, who lack the experience and revolutionary tempering of the personnel of the senior generation, is increasing. This process of cadre rejuvenation is natural, necessary and unavoidable. What is important is to see and profoundly realize the problems it presents, particularly in terms of the professional skill and upbringing of the young cadres, in order to ensure the implementation of the fruitful and necessary official and party measures.

We are particularly concerned with and worried by the existence of officials who allow violations of official and military discipline and sometimes even of socialist legality because of insufficient maturity and undeveloped qualities important in our profession and who fail to realize the eventual consequences.

Considering the role of the subjective factor and its significant possibilities in terms of further improvements in the all-round activities of the organs, the ministry systematically emphasizes the need for steadily training cadres in the areas of the most topical problems of our activities and their overall development as good professionals and as loyal and dedicated soldiers of the party in the struggle for the triumph of the bright communist ideals.

The specific nature of the activities of the law and order personnel also determines the special concern which must be devoted by the official and party

leaderships in the units for their training, education and professional growth.

More than anything else, the MVR [Ministry of Internal Affairs] cadres must have strong ideological faith in the great party cause -- the cause of communism. They must have extensive and profound knowledge of Marxism-Leninism and display firm political thinking and behavior. They must also have a lofty sense of party responsibility and understanding of their duty to the people.

All MVR officials must display an active life stance and clear political and class-party approach, for based on the nature of their activities, as they preserve safety and public order in the country and protect socialist property and the other gains of socialism, they are the party's political fighters. That is why always and everywhere they must actively defend the party's policy and struggle for its implementation.

Furthermore, the MVR personnel must display high morality and moral purity. They must be guided in all their actions by the noble principles and norms of socialist community life and firmly fight anything alien to our socialist way of life. No compromises with one's own conscience are possible in this case. Experience convincingly proves that whenever anyone has allowed even a minor retreat from our morality and yielded to greed, immorality and private-ownership mentality or dishonesty, that same person has already begun to slide toward poor discipline. This is precisely the reason for so called extraordinary accidents and violations of the law which, unfortunately, are still being committed by some officials.

A number of factors determine the development of a Chekist character in our officials. For example, our schools, such as the G. Dimitrov VSSh [Higher Special School], the F. E. Dzerzhinskiy SMU [Special Militia School] and the sergeants' schools, where virtually all officers and sergeants acquire their basic and periodical refresher training, play an important role. The work style of the command personnel in the units, the microclimate within them, the activeness of the party organs and organizations, the Komsomol, the political workers, etc., are of very great importance.

A factor worthy of special emphasis is the systematic concern and efforts which must be made in the units in ensuring the ideological and professional training of the personnel. As Comrade T. Zhivkov emphasized at the 12th Party Congress, "All that we are accomplishing in material production, scientific and technical progress, labor organization, spiritual standards, etc., depends on the preparedness of the people and their overall aspect as individuals, working people and intellects. Such preparedness must be on the level of the great tasks of the future, on the level of the tasks of shaping personalities with a communist outlook and morality."

The new official and party school year within the MVR system began a short time ago. Like any school year, this one has its specific features. It must follow its course as fully consistent with the specific domestic and international circumstances in which our people live and work and in which the MVR organs operate. In particular, this school year will be oriented toward quality problems. Both the ministry's collegium and the managements of the



units have special developmens, plans and programs for work on this strategic problem, which must be applied in school work as well. One again Marxist-Leninist ideology and the topical problems of building mature socialism in our country will be studied extensively and on an organized basis. Individual problems of the specialized subjects, important party decisions and internal MVR regulations governing our activities, documents, etc., will be mastered on a specific and differentiated basis, in accordance with the requirements of the individual units.

We have acquired substantial experience and developed good traditions in cadre training and education. The main thing now is, on the basis of such experience, to enhance the level of the personnel's ideological education and professional training. It is particularly important to combine the study of theory with the solution of practical problems. It is high time to realize that no one needs bookish knowledge only. Training and political education will play their main role only by developing within MVR cadres motivations for specific actions and contributing to attaining better results in our official and social activities and upgrading criteria and exigency.

The training of cadres must be such as to inspire them to develop deeper concepts on the problems on which they are working. In this respect the fullest possible use should be made of the innovative ideas and creative approaches contained in Comrade T. Zhivkov's post-congress works. It is precisely their topical and vital nature which should enrich training, political instruction and all ideological education work.

More than every before training must be focused on achieving a real change in the way of thinking and responsibility of ministry cadres. This must be considered an exceptionally important aspect in our overall efforts to strengthen the discipline. We must not forget that some disciplinary violations are due precisely to the inadequate training of the personnel.

Furthermore, by enriching their content, we must make use of the ways and means of training which may contribute more effectively to increasing the contribution of the training and education process to the practical solution of official problems and tasks. Its internal organization must be perfected.

It is our duty to eliminate from the training process formalism and primitivism, which are still frequently encountered. The official and party managements in the units and the political workers can and must impose the type of exigency which will comprehensively enrich the meaningful side of the training and exclude a devotion to the quantitative approach mainly. In this respect the training-methodical commissions in the units, some of which are still idle, could also make themselves more useful.

Greater use should be made of active training methods such as solving practical problems and cases, on-site classes, etc. Practical experience proves that they help the trainees to become better accustomed to creative thinking and independent work and to find their way more accurately in difficult situations.

The complexity of the training process requires serious preparations on the part of the coaches -- lecturers, propagandists and heads of study groups -- some of whom are official leaders. The quality and effectiveness of training depends to the greatest extent on them, on their preparations for each class and their ability to present the material in a creative, interesting and convincing manner and to suggest new ideas and solutions. It is they who must energize the audience and turn all lessons into lively discussion and debate clubs.

Unquestionably, the more purposeful, consistent and qualitative the ideological and professional training of cadres becomes the greater will be the effect on their official duties and overall behavior. For it is an old truth that Marxist-Leninist ideology, which is the foundation of the entire content of the training provided in our school units, is not only a means of explaining social processes but a powerful force for changing reality.

5003

CSO: 2200/45

BULGARIA

DECREE OUTLINES CONDITIONS FOR MILITARY SERVICE EXEMPTION

Sofia DURZHAVEN VESTNIK in Bulgarian 19 Oct 84 p 977

[Text] The State Council of the Bulgarian People's Republic, based on article 94, point 2 of the Constitution of the Bulgarian People's Republic, issues the following

Decree No 3407

concerning the regular military service of young men who are being trained in specialties that are particularly necessary for the economy.

Article 1 (1). The education of young men who have been admitted on a regular basis as students in the vocational branches of the Electronics and Automation and the Biotechnology specialties during the period 1984-1990 is accepted as completed regular military service, under the condition that they assume an obligation by contract to work, after graduating from the institution of higher education, for at least 10 years at places assigned according to their specialties, and that they will go through 4 months of military training.

(2). The 4 months of military training, according to paragraph 1, is to be completed during vacation time or after graduation, by order of the minister of national defense, in coordination with the minister of national education.

Article 2. It accepts as completed military service the education of young men who have graduated during the period 1984-1990 from the Vocational Secondary Education Technical School for Shipbuilding in Burgas, as well as from the Technical School for Shipbuilding and Navigation in Varna, in the specialties of shipbuilding and ship machines and mechanisms, under the condition that they assume a contract obligation to work in the shipbuilding plants for at least 10 years and go through 4 months of military training.

Article 3. In the case of nonfulfillment of the obligations assumed under articles 1 and 2, the young men serve out their regular military service in the generally established way.



## Final Decree

Sole Paragraph. Carrying out this decree is assigned to the minister of national defense, the minister of national education, and the minister of machine building, who issue an order for its application.

Issued on 11 October 1984 in Sofia and endorsed by the state seal.  
Chairman of the State Council of the Bulgarian People's Republic:  
T. Zhivkov; Secretary of the State Council of the Bulgarian People's  
Republic: N. Manolov.

### Decree No 3319

The State Council of the Bulgarian People's Republic, based on article 93, point 23 of the Constitution of the Bulgarian People's Republic, decrees awarding Major General Aleksandur Rangelov Bozhilov the Georgi Dimitrov medal for his active participation in the struggle against fascism and capitalism, for his services in the Bulgarian People's Army, and in connection with his 60th birthday.

Sofia, 5 October 1984. Chairman of the State Council of the Bulgarian People's Republic: T. Zhivkov; Secretary of the State Council of the Bulgarian People's Republic: N. Manolov.

### Decree No 3321

The State Council of the Bulgarian People's Republic, based on article 93, point 23 of the Constitution of the Bulgarian People's Republic, decrees that the Georgi Dimitrov medal be awarded to Yordan Khristov Khadzhiyski, for his active participation in the struggle against fascism and capitalism, in the construction of socialism, and in connection with his 85th birthday.

Sofia, 5 October 1984. Chairman of the State Council of the Bulgarian People's Republic: T. Zhivkov; Secretary of the State Council of the Bulgarian People's Republic: N. Manolov.

12334  
CSO: 2200/42

COMPLICATED DIVORCE PROCEEDINGS IN NEW FAMILY CODE CRITICIZED

Interference in Private Life

Sofia STURSHEL in Bulgarian 26 Oct 84 p 3

/Article by Filip Dimitrov: "Can You Force Someone To Do Anything?"

/Text/ "More difficult and more slowly" seems to be the slogan of the draft of the new Family Code, as far as the problems of divorce are concerned.

It is true that the civilized form of divorce by mutual consent still exists. Bulgarian citizens have the right to decide by themselves whether they can live together or not, but this seems to be done with obvious dissatisfaction, which is emphasized by the 4-year period provided by art 100, para 2. It appears that the 4-year period is just the right time for young Bulgarians, most of all, to gain some wisdom: less time would not work! One has to be patient, because there is no procedure provided so that one can assert one's right to decide about one's own life.

Let us look now into the other form of divorce, the petition procedure, which offers the brightest hope for strengthening the Bulgarian family. Penka has decided that she cannot live any longer with Ivan, and she has filed a statement of petition for divorce. A reconciliatory session was scheduled, but Ivan did not show up. No one asked why. Maybe he went out for a drink with his friends. The court postponed the case and scheduled another reconciliatory session for at least 2 months later (new art 259, para 3, point "A" proposed for the Civil Procedure Code). This time, though, Ivan did appear, but he declared that he wanted "to continue the efforts for reconciliation" (not that he really has made up his mind to be reconciled, but rather to show Penka what a macho man she is about to lose!). According to point "B" of the article quoted above, the court postponed the case for another 2 months. The same court could decide on its own (that is, without having the agreement of either of the spouses) that it is possible to achieve a reconciliation. (It is not known whether they would use occult paraphernalia to allow the court to prove to us that we just think that we know what we want, but as a matter of fact only the court knows, better than we do, what we really want.) In other words, we are dealing with a text that shows us that it would be much better if someone else were to take care of our own life. If these were only isolated instances in the draft of the Family Code, one could take them somehow. But this is a question of

intruding in a citizen's private and family life, which is in contradiction to art 50 of the Constitution, which is supposed to protect citizens from intrusion into the private sphere. Legalizing intrusion would not make it more acceptable to the general principles of socialist jurisdiction. And this is precisely the tendency of the draft for art 259, para 4 of the Civil Procedure Code, according to which the court could, at any time during the case, cause representatives of social organizations to come to the spouses' places of residence and of work and to ask for cooperation in the reconciliation. If Penka and Ivan had somehow agreed to simulate divorce proceedings in order to attain some insignificant social benefit (it would be difficult to get away with an important one), then everything would be all right. Before you know it, their lives would have settled down, and they would have gotten, let us say, a place in a kindergarten. In all other cases, however, introducing social organizations into the family kitchen and bedroom is quite tactless. Psychopathology is familiar with such types of personalities, people who have a need to display their entire personal and intimate life to the public, but spouses usually are far from being that way. However, the interference of public organizations (and of some of their retired representatives) would continue even after the divorce. According to art 108 of the Family Code, society, armed with a copy of the court decision, would have the right to rush after the divorcee in order to exercise influence: let us be merry, forget about discretion. And why should people not be amused by other people's problems? There will be material pain in the decisions. Because, according to art 99, para 2 of the Family Code, the court would have to make an official statement on the question of who is at fault. That is, whether they like it or not, all of the spouses' problems will be made available to the public, and someone will have to be marked, for the sake of society and to make things easier for the children, who will now have it all cleared up for them: mom is bad, dad is good! Or vice-versa. Or, both mom and dad are bad, 50 percent for each. Is that not beautiful?

But let us return to the difficulty of divorce procedures. A fee of 500 leva is being proposed, quite an awesome sum for a person with an average working wage. Otherwise, its purpose is noble: to support families with many children and to encourage births. We should keep in mind, however, that the failure of a marriage is a misfortune, not a pleasure that has to be paid for. Some of the articles of the Family Code seem to suggest the idea that the person who manages to get out of a marriage and have an easy life after that is a smart fellow, and that is why a divorce should be a luxury, almost a reward for the effort.

How can we explain, then, art 99, para 3 of the Family Code, which has been dug up from the past and is totally obsolete? It first accepts the fact that there is a dissolution of a marriage (and again it is deep and irreparable, otherwise the text would not make any sense), and then it says that if the guilty party files for a divorce, even though he or she has the proper basis, according to art 1, the court will reject it; and then, in the end, there is the consolation that if the court finds extenuating circumstances, it would have dissolved the marriage. And so it turns out that the obvious fiasco of a marriage is not sufficient foundation for a divorce. Three were others as well! The court will eventually talk about them in the courtroom, although we might never learn about them anyway....

So, actual separation is the only way to rid ourselves of a nonsensical marriage and of a burdensome divorce. However, ch 3 of the draft literally chains the spouses together. Common possessions and joint accounts (art 19, para 1) and personal savings could be practically blocked (art 22, para 4 of the Family Code). Even gifts from parents could be verified only if we had called on a notary public in time (art 133a of the Civil Procedure Code). Even then it is not easy to save your life. Only the "cautious one" can escape, the one who spies, who checks notary signatures, who puts money away in dirty socks rather than a savings account.

People who are not young, and those who are not all that young, people who have decided to build the basic cell of our society, should step forward, accompanied by the Wedding March, and toward their great responsibility as a citizen.

#### Contradictions in Family Code

Sofia STURSHEL in Bulgarian 26 Oct 84 p 4

/Article by Ananiy Baldzhiyski, jurist: "There is No Legal Prescription Among Spouses"/

/Text/ The massive participation in the discussion of the draft of the Family Code shows the nationwide concern about regulating and improving the system of legal norms which are related to the family and related legal issues. There is an obvious desire, shared by all, to give effective protection to marriage and all spiritual and material support for the children. During the course of discussions, however, a number of controversial decisions have sprung up, in addition to the successful new ones.

Here, for example, is the new formulation in art 22, para 2 of the draft, which provides for a joint settlement for both spouses' common property and rights. This means that in order to have such a settlement given legal status, joint action by both spouses is necessary.

There is a provision that if, despite the requirement, one of the spouses has not filed a claim statement within the 6-month period following notification, an action can be generated against him, even if he has not participated in the transaction.

We come across a contradiction here. The first sentence of the article quoted, art 22, para 2, with the requirement of the joint settlement, is in contradiction to the second sentence of the same paragraph, which enunciates the possibility of a single-person settlement of rights and real estate.

The most unsuccessful aspect of this case, however, is that the spouse who is not aware of the transaction, or who objects to its taking place, is being pushed into the abyss of risk and expenses connected with a family court suit, moreover within a strictly defined period of time.

According to the norms, such a transaction should not generate any legal consequences, or they should be minimal.

The third paragraph of art 22 has also been edited unsuccessfully. It makes the provision that, if the settlement of the common possessions has been made by one spouse without the knowledge of the other, the transaction would not be valid for the other spouse if a third person was aware or could be aware that such an agreement had not been reached.

It is incorrect to place the interests of the concerned spouse (in most cases) at the mercy of the good faith of a third party, who usually has a definite interest in the transaction.

Para 4 of the same art 22 introduces a disturbance in the new principle proclaimed in art 19 of the draft (which regulates the common rights to bank accounts, possessions, and rights to them, acquired during the marriage), by allowing the bank account owner to deal with it on a single-person basis. The warranty provided in art 22 is that, under specified conditions, sums exceeding a certain limit could be drawn from the account with the consent of both spouses.

Such a text in the law would offer the possibility of endless suits between the spouses. And that over the course of many years, because there is no legal prescription between spouses!

New norms have been provided for in ch 9 of the draft.

The expression "to declare a marriage as invalid" has been replaced by "the destruction of the marriage."

Only two forms of divorce have been introduced: divorce by fault and divorce by mutual consent. When one of the spouses or both of them are at fault, the court sends a copy of the decision to the workers' collective at the workplace or to the public organization at the spouses' place of residence. An increase in the final state fee for a divorce, to 500 leva, has been proposed.

These proposals are evidently not in conformity with the reality in our country.

First of all, there are grounds for apprehension that increasing the final state fee could encourage cohabitation and would in no way stop spouses from obtaining a divorce, if that is what they had decided to do.

The most practical form of divorce, without guilt, established by the practices of the courts and in life, is being abandoned.

Prolonging the time for filing for divorce by mutual consent, from 2 to 4 years, also hides the danger of harming the interests of the spouses and the children.

The most unacceptable aspect, however, remains sending the copy of the court decision sent to the workers' collective or the public organizations. Obviously this would be a brutal and unjustifiable intrusion into the intimate lives of the people obtaining a divorce.

This is something that has thus far been allowed only with respect to criminals, but the draft now broadens it, by introducing public ostracism as a form of penalizing sanction.



KLUSAK SPEECH AT PACEM IN TERRIS CONGRESS

Prague RUDE PRAVO in Czech 13 Nov 84 p 3

[Excerpts] The Third Congress of the Pacem in Terris Association of Catholic Priests was addressed by Comrade Milan Klusak who, among other things, stated the following:

Regrettably, the current world situation is very serious and complicated. The most reactionary and militant circles of international imperialism, headed by the military-industrial complex of the United States of America, which controls the American administration, continue in their highly dangerous and risky policy. Their aim is to achieve strategic military superiority and dictate to the world from this position. This policy is directed against the socialist countries, against all progressive and peace-loving forces in the world.

This fierce and vital struggle on a global scale is unquestionably also reflected in as complex, sensitive and important a sphere of world social reality as the life of churches and religion.

On the one hand, the reactionary circles of imperialism strive to misuse churches and religion as a political, i.e., ideological instrument of their aggressive intentions in their struggle against socialism, and in some cases they have even succeeded in this respect. The competent circles in the United States have selected the churches and religion generally as a force in the socialist countries which is intended as an instrument to disintegrate socialism. They fraudulently paint the socialist countries as the mortal enemies and persecutors of churches and religion, thus pitting the masses of believers against society. We all know that such attacks are totally contradicted by our reality.

On the other hand, however, we are also witnessing a broadly-based involvement on behalf of peace in many churches and religions, in fact, in terms of extent and intensity this activism represents a new historical phenomenon. Along with other groupings and population strata, many church and religious circles have become an important factor in the defense of peace throughout the world.

The forces of international imperialism are gravely disturbed by the peace activism of many churches and religions, and strive in the most diverse ways and pressures to weaken and disrupt it. It is unfortunate that they are often aided in this endeavor by certain other religious circles, including the rightist elements in the Vatican. We know that this is not for the first time in history.

We are obviously not disinterested in what position the church assumes in the CSSR. Consequently, we appreciate the fact that a large majority of clerics and believers act on the side of social progress and peace. We find this to be so from the profound realization that the tenets of humanism are contained in the very essence of socialism, from grasping the viability of the new society and its historic moral superiority over the social ills of unjust social systems.

We also value the fact that the yearning for peace and peaceful coexistence in the eyes of our churches and religious societies is not an empty phrase but rather one of the dominant principles of their everyday work among the believers. This is also demonstrated by the work and especially the results achieved by the Committee of Church and Religious Officials in support of the World Assembly for Peace and Life against Nuclear War. In this committee your association demonstrated that it has a very important mission. This was and remains the fulfillment of the thought and tradition of those patriotic priests who as early as more than 35 years ago--under very difficult internal conditions in the church--understood that they live in a society in which the people govern and that all activity must be aimed at their happiness and welfare.

The current state of peace efforts at home and abroad, above all the work of the Christian peace movements, must provide great satisfaction to you, members of the Pacem in Terris Association of Catholic Priests. Despite the attacks and lack of understanding in certain circles of your own church, despite slander and assaults from the church emigres abroad, you have managed to recognize in time the essential interests of your homeland in contemporary world development, as well as the specificity of your work under the conditions of a socialist state.

The stand of most Roman Catholic diocese leaders in Bohemia and Moravia also indicates clear satisfaction with and appreciation of your efforts to date. Bishops and capitular vicars have wisely assessed the significance and benefits of this work and expressed their intention to continue to participate in it.

Good mutual relations have been achieved and new prerequisites established for their intensification. We are aware of and do not underestimate, however, the fact that there have been and continue to be attempts to disrupt our church policies from the outside. I am especially referring to attacks against you personally and against your association in the form of a mendacious campaign intended to convince the world that you represent an effort to liquidate the Catholic Church in the CSSR, and



to place in doubt your allegiance to it. The objectives of such campaigns are clear and those who stand behind them do not even try very hard to conceal them. These attacks simply parallel other efforts of the most reactionary forces in the world. They stem in part from hatred for the socialist system, and from misunderstanding and twisting of the reasons for the existence and work of your association. These campaigns do not benefit the church or individual priests and believers; instead, such activity means to disrupt the foundation of understanding and trust between church and state, for which we have been laboriously working.

One of the hostile intentions is to deter a dialogue between our state and the Vatican. We are happy to see that the overwhelming majority of priests did not allow itself to be deceived by these maneuvers. Notably, the younger generation of priests should become aware of the significance and desirability of such a stand. Those who oppose or slander the work of the association should realize that they are only harming the best interests of the Catholic Church. We have in the past undertaken important negotiations between our state and the Vatican. You are well acquainted with their positive results. If, however, these negotiations subsequently faltered, it is certainly through no fault of the CSSR. We are prepared to act and we have demonstrated ample good will and understanding. In the final analysis, the consultative encounters of the respective delegations this year are a clear indication of this fact. We do not desire, however, nor can we negotiate under conditions which exclude equity and honest intentions. We still believe that the other side will recognize this also. We shall submit to no pressures in the question of continued activity of the Pacem in Terris Association of Catholic Priests, which we will continue to support in every way in the future.

In the name of the Government of the Czech Socialist Republic and all the responsible offices of the socialist state, I assure you that we are fully determined to support further your meritorious efforts as you have formulated them in your program for the coming term.

9496

CSO: 2400/97

## NEW AGENCY TO SUPERVISE NUCLEAR SAFETY

Prague SVET HOSPODARSTVI in Czech No 113, 1984 pp 1, 2

/Article by Dana Pavlatova: "Nuclear Power Safety--New Federal Nuclear Safety Control Agency Constituted Under Czechoslovak Atomic Energy Commission/

/Excerpts/ Czechoslovakia belongs among countries that are fully oriented toward nuclear power in meeting their growing need for energy. The reason is the gradual depletion of the key power resources--lignite--the current reserves of which are estimated at 30 to 40 years, and increases in the price of other sources. Thus the CSSR, as a developed industrial country, must provide with a sufficient lead in time power resources for the continued development of its economy. The only realistic and technically manageable source at the industrial level for CSSR needs is unequivocally nuclear power. Czechoslovakia is engaged in the utilization of nuclear power jointly with the USSR; the first agreement regarding cooperation was concluded as early as 1955. A true milestone in the industrial utilization of nuclear power is the CSSR-USSR agreement of 1970, on the basis of which the CSSR nuclear program is oriented toward Soviet water reactors of the type WWR 440 and, later, WWR 1000.

The first phase of the Czechoslovak nuclear program involves building in the CSSR type blocks of WWR 400 nuclear power plants. This involves a total of 12 blocks located at three sites--in Jaslovske Bohunice, Bukovany and Mochovce. All blocks of this standardized generation of Soviet nuclear power plants will be launched into operation by 1990, which will represent approximately 30 percent of installed electric capacity of the country. Both blocks of the nuclear power plant V-1 in Jaslovske Bohunice generated in 1983 almost 6 billion kWh of electric power, representing approximately 8 percent of our total generation of electric energy. Nuclear power plants of the next generation--WWR 1000--will be launched into operation after 1990. The first site at which these blocks will be built and where preparations are already under way is Temelin.

Nuclear power engineering, similar to all industrial operations, not only makes undisputed positive contributions, but also poses certain risks. The risk posed

by nuclear power engineering is its potential for the introduction of radioactive substances and ionizing radiation generated in the operation of reactors into the environment during normal operation of nuclear systems and in case of accidents. This risk entails several objective specifics which differentiate it from existing risks. These objective specifics, together with the importance and extent of nuclear power engineering in individual countries and worldwide, has led to the devotion of considerable attention to the safety problems of nuclear facilities in all countries. Federal supervisory agencies independent of products and operators of nuclear facilities are being established systematically and uncompromisingly to promote societal interest in the safety of nuclear installations. These agencies stipulate the requirements on safety, controlling compliance with them and issuing approval for individual operations.

The CSSR Government is fully aware of the need and significance of providing for nuclear safety in the CSSR. In addition to expansion and intensification of the operations of existing supervisory agencies whose jurisdiction extends to nuclear power engineering, this led to the establishment of a new federal control agency--federal supervision of nuclear safety of nuclear installations. The traditional supervisory organs active in the area of nuclear power engineering are organs of the federal special supervision over work safety and safety of technical installations in the CSR and SSR and agencies of the CSR and SSR hygienic service.

The specificity of risks posed by nuclear power engineering and the proliferation of new scientific and technical disciplines which participate in nuclear power engineering led to the establishment of a new federal control organ--federal control over nuclear safety of nuclear installations, constituted by Law no 28/1984 of the SBIRKA ZAKONU under the Czechoslovak Atomic Energy Commission /CSKAE/.

This law of 22 March 1984 delineates the jurisdiction and tasks of CSKAE in this area, its tasks in carrying out supervisory activities, the duties and obligations of agencies and organizations responsible for the operation of facilities and the principles for implementing accident-prevention measures. In carrying out federal supervision the CSKAE controls how responsible agencies and organizations comply with the requirements and conditions of nuclear safety of installations so as to maintain them in a constantly safe state. It controls whether the management of nuclear installations is in compliance with accident prevention methods and those limiting their eventual consequences. Among other things, the commission further participates in the constant improvement of the level of nuclear safety of installations by utilizing R&D findings, experience gained in the operation of nuclear installations and international cooperation in this area, which it turns over to organizations which provide for the preparation, production, construction and operation of nuclear power plants.

CSKAE also grants approval for individual stages of launching nuclear installations into operation, involving particularly the charging of nuclear fuel into reactors, commencement of physical startup, power startup and experimental operation of nuclear facilities. It also grants approval for systems to be used in the transportation of nuclear materials and their transportation, storage and processing. The important activities of the commission include

approval of limiting states and standards that from the viewpoint of nuclear safety must not be exceeded as well as the conditions that must be simultaneously maintained.

Control activities in carrying out federal supervision of nuclear safety of installations are exercised by the chief inspector and inspectors of nuclear safety, who are authorized to require an organization to implement by a specific deadline measures for the elimination of any deviations from approved documentation. They are further authorized to check special professional qualifications of selected personnel, particularly their familiarity with limits, conditions and operating regulation, and to require organizations to carry out technical inspections, revision or testing of the fitness of systems and machinery for operation. The CSKAE chairman and, in his absence, the chief inspector is authorized to order the implementation of measures that are indispensable from the viewpoint of nuclear safety in the case of a serious situation, including reduction in output or halting the operation of nuclear installations.

CSKAE, as the agency of federal supervision of nuclear safety, controls and passes judgment on the safety of a nuclear installation as a whole--nuclear safety defined as the capacity for controlling the nuclear fission chain, reaction in a nuclear reactor and the capacity for preventing undesirable escape of radioactive substances into the vicinity of the nuclear facility. The basis for attainment of the required nuclear safety level is constituted by the technical state and quality of individual technological systems of a nuclear installation subject to supervision by technical control organs. Analyses serve as a basis for determining among nuclear systems the so-called selected systems from the viewpoint of nuclear safety, for which specified quality control programs are established. The extent of selected systems and the contents of quality control programs are determined by federal control over nuclear safety, while the federal technical inspectorate controls their meeting at the production and installation stage. Thus, the sphere of mutual contact and cooperation of these two supervisory organs are individual technological systems that are important from the viewpoint of nuclear safety with the objective of achieving and maintaining their requisite quality.

The objective of all safety measures to provide protection for personnel and for the populace. Requirements on protection are stipulated and controlled by hygienic service agencies. CSSR hygienic service agencies rely in the stipulation of the former on many years' experience in the implementation and control of protection against radiation in our country, on the latest scientific findings on the effects of ionizing radiation on the human organism, and on recommendations of specialized international organizations. Hygienic service agencies and state control of nuclear safety maintain close contact in the area of assessing the effectiveness of safety measures, evaluating the effects of nuclear installations on the surrounding population, processing of radioactive waste, etc.

From what was said above it follows that the system of three key supervisory organs in no case translates into the duplication of activity. The problems relevant to the safety of nuclear installations are complex and significant to the point that they must be the object of activity of many supervisory

agencies, which control their safety from various aspects. The conduct of control entails collaboration on the part of these agencies; this, however, does not mean the violation of their respective jurisdictions, but improved effectiveness of control activities.

The objective to improve further the quality of existing cooperation led last year to the signing of a bilateral agreement regarding cooperation between CSKAE and the Czech Bureau of Work Safety, and this year between CSKAE and the Slovak Bureau of Work Safety. These agreements contain, among other things, provisions for mutual exchange of rulings and positions relevant to applications made by investors and operators, mutual consultations, information about the results attained in control activities including joint inspections, interpretation of regulations, and other forms of cooperation. The experience gathered so far in the activities of control agencies in CSSR nuclear power engineering shows that the selected system and their cooperation fully meet the needs of providing safety in Czechoslovak nuclear power engineering.

8204

CSO: 2400/81



UNITED STATES ACCUSED IN GANDHI'S DEATH

Prague RUDE PRAVO in Czech 2 Nov 84 p 7

[Article by Milan Madr: "Partners in Crime"]

[Text] The brutal crime which cost the life of India's Prime Minister Indira Gandhi and the moments of deepest sorrow which India and all her friends around the world are experiencing throw into sharp, revealing light the dark intrigues of the separatists and their foreign patrons, partners in crime.

India earned the deepest and well-earned respect of nations for her independent policy of peace and friendship. But such a policy has not been to the taste of the imperialist circles. When in the 1950's the infamous crusader of the "cold war," John Foster Dulles (the U.S. secretary of state at the time), preached about the "immorality of neutrality," one of the countries he had in mind, and that most of all, was India. The United States is accustomed to form its relations with developing nations on the principle of "those who are not with us are against us." India's policy disillusioned them and is an irritant even today. For that reason, India became the object of subversive activities of imperialist countries. Their aim was to change her foreign policy and, if that could not be achieved, to greatly weaken her in order to diminish her influence and muffle her clear voice.

"Certain external forces are trying to develop pressure on our country and force their will on her. One of the reasons why pressure is being exerted on India is her pursuit of a peaceful policy of nonalignment," said Indira Gandhi.

India has been in favor of disarmament, of transforming the Indian Ocean into a peace zone, against nuclear war--the American approach is exactly the opposite. India condemned the dirty war in Vietnam, supports the Arab countries against Israeli aggression, expresses solidarity with the peoples of South Africa, speaks out for a just international economic order and information policy. This country is developing friendship and cooperation with socialist countries, has recognized the Cambodian People's Republic, has a realistic attitude toward Afghanistan, defends the anti-imperialist course of the non-aligned movement.

Subversive action against India, of many years' duration, was activated especially during recent times, specifically from the time when this country assumed the charimanship of the nonaligned movement (March 1983). Destabilizing pressure

takes many forms. Acrimony in her relations with her neighbors is being provoked. The United States maintains the tension in Pakistani-Indian relations by militarizing Pakistan and transforming it into its base. Imperialist propaganda muddies the relations between Sri Lanka and India and incites reactionary forces in Bangladesh to whip up an anti-Indian mood. Indian security is directly and immediately threatened by the rapidly growing U.S. military presence in the Indian Ocean.

The CIA carries out disruptive actions against India on a broad front. "CIA agents often penetrate India as Christian missionaries and businessmen. They especially make contact with various separatist gangs and supply them with money. And it is not by chance that the activism of the extremist groups is increasing sharply mainly in those areas where the so-called missionaries and businessmen are operating," wrote the Indian magazine NEW WAVE.

The Indian press has published much important material about the shameless interference of the United States in India's internal affairs. The weekly LINK published information about the "Kirkpatrick Plan," which presupposes the division of the country into a number of small states. There also exists the project of the Western intelligence services called "Plan Brahmaputra," the aim of which is to create a puppet "independent" state along the course of that river in northeastern India. The CIA demonstrably supported the Sikh separatists in the Punjab either directly or through the intermediary of Pakistan. At the beginning of this year the Indian Ministry of the Interior submitted to the government a special report on the subversive activities of the CIA. Separatism is also being fomented in other Indian states and union territories--Nagalan, Mizoram, Manipur and Tripura.

Recently it flared up most dangerously in the Punjab, where the main body of adherents of the Sikh religious community live (about 9 million out of a total of 12 million). Fanatical extremists tried by a campaign of bloody terror and a merciless application of the physical liquidation of inconvenient people to break away that state from India and create so-called Khalistan.

According to the weekly PEOPLE'S DEMOCRACY, the U.S. Embassy in New Delhi actively supported this separatist movement. Washington prepared a very cordial reception for the self-styled "President of Khalistan." One of the overseas leaders of the Sikh separatists, Dillon, long known for his CIA connections, regularly travels between the United States and Pakistan. In Islamabad he is greeted as a personal guest of President Zia. On Pakistani territory are camps where terrorists are being trained not only against Afghanistan but also against India. From Pakistan weapons for the separatists also stream into the Punjab. They also find refuge in Great Britain.

By issuing the necessary order to put an end to the wave of violence and terror, Indira Gandhi earned the deadly hatred of those circles. She paid with her life for their cooperation with the imperialists and their secret services, for their financial, material and, if it is possible to put it that way, even moral support from abroad. Did her murderers have at their disposal a manual similar to the one the CIA prepared for the Nicaraguan counterrevolutionaries, which among other things gives detailed instructions on murdering public figures?



No matter what the answer, it is certain that her life was ruthlessly destroyed by the reactionary, disruptive and fanatical circles which enjoy the generous and substantial support of external forces hostile to India, above all those from the United States.

12605

CSO: 2400/79

DEMOCRATIC PLURALISM QUESTIONED

Prague RUDE PRAVO in Czech 26 Oct 84 p 4

[Article by Jaroslav Mazal: "The Fig Leaf of Bourgeois Democracy"]

[Excerpts] Recently bourgeois propaganda has been particularly active in contrasting socialist democracy with the conceptions of ideological and political pluralism. It advises the socialist and developing countries and recommends that they "improve" and "humanize" their political system by the development toward pluralism. At the same time, it sets as a model of "pluralistic democracy" the political system in the United States and other capitalist countries which--according to Western propaganda--is the most democratic because it respects the interests of individual strata and groups of the entire population. It is therefore in order to question what actually is hidden behind the term "pluralism" and what functions have been assigned to it in the ideological class struggle at the present time.

If we judge the theses and constructions of Western ideologies from the class positions of Marxism-Leninism, it is obvious that the ideological and political pluralism in the form in which it exists in contemporary bourgeois society is the reflection and result of its disintegration into the antagonistic classes and their irreconcilable struggle.

After all, we find conclusive evidence of this in the reports of world press agencies on class confrontations in Western countries literally today and everyday--if, because of its long-lasting and persistent struggle, the working class in the capitalist states has attained by fighting a certain scope of rights and political freedom, it is the ruling bourgeoisie which constantly tries to curb and annul them. In addition to brutal interventions against the mass protest actions of the working class, it also makes use of the periodical alternation of political parties in power to retain its class hegemony. It also uses as a veil the propaganda of the ideas of pluralism, which is presented as a synonym of genuine freedom, democracy and human rights--while real socialism is slandered as totalitarianism, suppression of individuality, as the absolute opposite of freedom and democracy.

The ideological constructs of apologists of pluralism are essentially nothing but a heap of fabrications, confused generalizations and postulates betraying an inability to comprehend the inner contexts of social phenomena. Although they proceed from the indisputable truth that numerous groups, strata and

institutions exist and are active in society, they completely ignore the fundamental, actually existing division of capitalist society into the principal, mutually antagonistic classes--the bourgeoisie and the proletariat. On the one hand they maintain that different interests exist in society, but on the other hand they do not see or pass over in silence the fact that these interests are based on the concrete material living conditions in which different social classes, strata and groups must exist. In other words, the partisans of the pseudo-theories of pluralism put a structure constructed according to superficial phenomena above the objectively conditioned class structure of capitalist society.

Although the approaches and views of bourgeois ideologists differ in some secondary details, they have in common the unscientific, subjectivist view of the social structure of human society. They emphasize its multiformity, but fail to give a scientifically founded answer to the question of where this multiformity originates and conceal the real essence of the relations between the classes and social groups. For example, the working people and particularly the members of the working class have in common the fact that they are not--regardless of the fact whether they have a party card, adhere to a religious denomination or differ in another way--owners of the means of production, must sell their labor power and are exploited by the bourgeoisie. All members of the bourgeoisie--no matter to which political party, religious community or other associations and organizations they belong--have a common interest in preserving the capitalist ownership of the means of production and maintaining all privileges of the ruling class.

#### Fear of Mass Actions

It is not accidental that the bourgeois propaganda machinery pays so much attention today precisely to the popularization of pluralistic concepts. They are designed both for their own countries and for "export"--their "export orientation" has been particularly marked in recent years. This is obviously for many reasons. One of them is that through the "absolutization" of plurality and denial of basic common interests, political pluralism serves to conceal the reactionary substance of capitalist social relations. The division of capitalist society into groups, strata and institutions, the overestimation of special, differentiated interests, aims at splitting the working class, which is the most revolutionary force of society, and at its separation from its natural allies.

Workers, working farmers, intelligentsia, youth, trade unions and other groups and segments of society should be directed toward their narrow, limited, particular interests. They are not to arrive at the conclusion that decisive joint actions for a socially just organization of society, against social lawlessness and oppression, for the termination of arms race, for achieving life in peace and social security, if they are to be successful, require a joint struggle against capitalism, close militant alliance with the working class and its Marxist-Leninist party.

## Divide et Impera

The strenthened emphasis of Western centers of ideological subversion on the propagation of pluralistic pseudotheories also has its topical international dimension. Just as it tries to split the working class within the national framework into a multitude of differentiated groups, so also world socialism acting together, and especially the community of socialist states, is to be split into many parts. Various pluralistic concepts ideologically reflect the strategies of imperialism aimed at doing away with real socialism. They correspond to the old-new principle "Divide et impera" (Divide and Rule). Accordingly, pluralism today attempts to split the international communist and workers movement and to isolate from one another the three principal currents of the worldwide revolutionary process.

Our class adversary therefore directs his main blow at the state system of countries of real socialism, their working class, against the leading role of the Marxist-Leninist party, the theory and practice of the dictatorship of the proletariat, the policy of alliances of the working class, and the principles of proletarian and socialist internationalism.

## Reality of the "Free World"

The candidates of bourgeois parties financed by the monopolies usually make promises right and left in the course of the electoral campaigns, but later on they "forget" them and betray the voters' interests. The inevitable outcome is nonparticipation in the elections, particularly typical of the United States. It is significant that the participation of American voters in the congressional elections has fallen below 40 percent in recent years.

The problem of financing electoral campaigns in the capitalist countries became notorious a long time ago. For example, the campaign in the United States of "selling" the offices of the President, senators, members of the House of Representatives and governors cost the organizers approximately \$1 billion in 1980. These costs further increased in the 1984 presidential elections. Such is the merciless logic of the "free world" in whose political mechanism the following principle still applies: one makes music to those who pay for it.

The phenomenon of lobbyism--influencing the "servants of the people" by the representatives of big business, particularly of the military-industrial complex, in their own selfish interest--has become part of the practice of legislative bodies in many capitalist countries. Charges of corruption, which is the logical outcome of such contacts between the monopolistic circles and bourgeois parliaments, political parties and government institutions, are systematically exposed.

These coalitions of power and money are also a typical phenomenon of the United States, Japan and other capitalist countries. According to the American periodical U.S. NEWS AND WORLD REPORT, it has become routine in today's America that "the policeman takes bribes from the businessman, the attorney puts into his pocket a part of the election funds of a politician engaged in the preelection campaign and completely ignores his misdemeanors, the judge takes bribes when the defendant is acquitted."

It is no secret that the international monopolistic bourgeoisie has been fighting socialism ever since it came into being. For this reason it has developed numerous anticommunist theories, concepts and slogans. All of them have failed because of the viability and strength of socialism. The theories of "worldview," "political" and "economic" pluralism will meet the same fate. Nevertheless, one cannot overlook the fact that the enemies of socialism have increased their efforts to decide the battle of ideas in their favor.

In order effectively to thwart these plans, utmost class vigilance must be maintained. For this reason, the importance of an offensive struggle against anticommunist ideology as well as the importance of Marxist-Leninist indoctrination of workers are increasing literally from day to day.

10501

CSO: 2400/80

TIME WASTE DISAPPROVED

Prague RUDE PRAVO in Czech 2 Nov 84 p 3

[Article by Vaclav Mazal: "What People Are Talking About"]

[Text] "Why so early today?"

"Well, I was a few minutes late yesterday and the foreman made a big issue out of it. As if 1 minute mattered. They lose hours in other places and nothing happens."

The morning conversation of two men at a bus stop soon changed to another topic. It seemed that to talk about a minute was not of importance to them. Truly, it is sometimes surprising how in some enterprises they will overlook such a small amount of time. Quite without justification. For example, some time ago I looked into a survey that was being conducted at Holoubkov Kovosvit. The utilization of work time seemed to be good and if any time was lost, then it was truly only minutes. However, the study showed that the minutes add up to almost 40,000 standard hours per day.

The total of late arrival transgressions and extended breaks adds up to considerable losses. If successful in eliminating them, an enterprise could meet its planned productivity growth without it costing them a penny. And that is just one example. Industrywide, one wasted minute represents a loss of 5 million korunas.

I do not think that such data are not well known, that in enterprises they are not aware of the importance of each minute. But then why such fearful reticence? It comes to mind that merely explaining the importance of this to the workers is not sufficient. Not in every case will such information fall on fertile soil; offenders become convinced only when they begin to feel the consequences of the losses they have caused in their own pocketbooks. That means conflicts and painstaking convincing, and they will not have the courage to face that sort of thing everywhere. Sometimes it would not really require that much of an effort.

Just try, for instance, to negotiate a late arrival at Prague Technometr. All the gates are closed and at the main entrance one has to give a pretty good explanation for being even 1 minute late. A few hundred meters away are the Ball-Bearing Works, where until recently loafers did not run much of a

risk. They entered the gate as if it were a triumphal arch, while some of the foremen kept forgetting to check the time clock.

It is obvious that in some places they manage to make up for the lost minutes, but it is the unused minutes that cause great concern to the industrial managers. For example, women on the Rokycany Favorit assembly line made a pledge among themselves that they would assemble eight more bicycles per day than required by the plan, even at the cost of overtime, which could amount to hours, not minutes. Yet at the same time the planned quota is not met, the line stands idle because of lack of materials. And what, for example, would be contributed to a discussion on the subject of utilizing work time by those at the new Jihlava Motorpal hall, where on Saturdays they are making up shortfalls in the manufacture of jets and on Mondays there is sometimes nothing to work with?

That discussion of the two men ended too soon. Unfortunately, it often ends too soon even in our enterprises and factories. And a discussion, perhaps about only 1 minute, would contribute so much.

12605

CSO: 2400/79



YALTA CONFERENCE INTERPRETED

Prague RUDE PRAVO in Czech 26 Oct 84 p 4

[Article by Vlastmil Koznar and Karel Richter, Institute of Military History, Prague: "Facts on the Yalta Conference"]

[Text] The falsifiers of World War II history continue to fabricate stories about the Yalta Conference. They keep insisting that at the conference, held from 4 to 11 February 1945, the United States and Great Britain allegedly made unjustifiable concessions resulting in a sellout of Eastern Europe to the Soviet Union. They are spreading lies that the decision to divide the world into Eastern and Western interest zones was made there. Let us recall certain facts proving that those who circulate such statements are guilty of a malicious distortion of events.

In early 1945, Hitler's Germany was in a catastrophic situation. On the Berlin front, the Soviet Army broke the Wehrmacht's resistance, advanced 500 kilometers and took numerous bridgeheads on the Oder River, thus gaining access to Berlin. The defeat of Hitler's regime was approaching fast. The Nazi bosses' only hope was the disintegration of the antifascist coalition. They tried desperately therefore to drive a wedge between the allies. In his broadcast to the American people in January 1945, the U.S. president, Franklin D. Roosevelt, referred to this fact: "Even the least important item, calculated to undermine our trust in our allies, may be compared to an enemy agent in our midst, to an attempt to subvert our war effort. Here and there, malicious and unfounded rumors are being spread about the Russians, the British, and our commanders in the field. If you examine carefully such tales, you will notice that each of them carries a label--made in Germany."

The situation demanded that the representatives of the three leading powers of the antifascist coalition, the USSR, the United States and Great Britain, agree on the problems of concluding the war and on post-war arrangements in Europe. Another conference of the "Big Three" government leaders was therefore necessary, and the Soviet Union suggested that it be held at Yalta. The "Big Three" representatives--J.V. Stalin, F.D. Roosevelt and W. Churchill--met on 4 February 1945 at Livadia near Yalta, in order to discuss the key questions related to ending the war initiating peace.

The first question on the agenda was the situation on the fronts. The press release stated: "We have discussed and confirmed military plans of the three powers concerning the final defeat of our common enemy...In the interest of the fastest possible victory, we have established military cooperation for the final stages of the war."

Also discussed were occupation zones in Germany and the administration of Greater Berlin. The American and British government representatives were in favor of dividing Germany into several independent states. The Soviet Government opposed this proposal and was instrumental in having this question removed from the agenda.

An important item on the conference program was the question of reparations. The Soviet Union justifiably claimed at least a partial compensation of its material losses, approximately \$10 billion. The British and later also the American governments expressed their objections to the agreed-upon sum.

Another item on the agenda was whether France should be recognized as an equal partner in solving international problems. The Soviet delegation fully supported French interests and succeeded in granting to France occupation rights in Germany and a participation in its control.

During the proceedings, the United States manifested its great interest that the Soviet Union declare war on Japan. The point of view of the Soviet delegation was that for the sake of all nations in the world war should be ended as soon as possible, which would save humanity unnecessary war sacrifices and damages. It accepted therefore the obligation of declaring war on Japan within 2 to 3 months following the conclusion of military operations in Europe. On 11 February 1945, the representatives of the three allied powers signed an agreement on the Far East, stipulating the conditions of the Soviet Union's declaration of war on Japan.

A Declaration on Liberated Europe was also approved at the Yalta Conference. The representatives of the three powers pledged jointly to help the liberated nations, as well as the former "satellite" nations, in solving democratically all urgent political and economic problems. The document states: "The establishment of order in Europe and the reconstruction of the economic life of nations has to be achieved in a manner enabling the liberated nations to destroy the last traces of nazism and fascism and to create democratic institutions according to their own choice."

The Polish question was discussed at great length at the Yalta Conference. The governments of the United States and Great Britain ignored the existence of the Polish provisional government and supported the Polish exile government in London, completely out of touch with the people. According to a finally reached compromise, certain members of the London exile government could join the new Polish government. At the same time, the resolution on Poland's eastern borders was agreed upon.

The conference dealt as well with the question of the unification of Yugoslav antifascist forces; it was agreed to support the provisional united government and the Antifascist Council of National Liberation of Yugoslavia.

The constitution of an international organization for the preservation of peace, later called the United Nations Organization, was another item on the agenda.

In a press release, the representatives of the three powers proclaimed their uniform view on questions of war and the organization of peace. The conference proved an exemplary cooperation of countries with different economic systems. To all nations of the world, it supplied evidence of the unity of the antifascist coalition in the effort to defeat Nazi Germany. None of the agreements reached at the conference contradicted the interests of nations forming the antifascist coalition or limited their sovereignty; its conclusions did not contain any agreement undermining the efforts of the working masses for national and social justice. It is unfortunate that the cooperation of the three powers, as documented by the conclusions of the Yalta Conference, is now falsely interpreted in order to further aggravate the differences between capitalism and socialism.

Were some recriminations to be made today concerning the Yalta Conference, then it would be the fact that the idea of cooperation of the great powers for the defeat of fascism is being in some countries depreciated by leniency toward attempts at regenerating fascism and revanchism or even by their open support. The sense of false interpretations of the proceedings and importance of the Yalta Conference is obvious: reactionary forces in the world are not willing to reconcile themselves with the fact that the Second World War and the post-war development have objectively created favorable conditions for profound revolutionary democratic changes in many countries of Europe and Asia, for the advent of a world socialist system. It is exactly this fact that is a thorn in their side.

12707

CSO: 2400/78

MILITARY HANDBOOK ON NUCLEAR WEAPONS, RADIATION

Prague PRIRUCKA PRO VOJENSKE CHEMIKY, NASE VOJSKO in Czech 1982, 353 pp

[Three chapters, pp 7-28, 97-109, 139-150, from volume 61 of Library of Military Handbooks entitled "Handbook for Military Chemical Troops," compiled by Col Engr Ladislav Prochazka, et al.]

[Excerpts] I. Nuclear Weapons

The term "nuclear weapons" denotes weapons which make use of energy released from the nucleus of an atom during nuclear detonation.

1. Combat Characteristics of Nuclear Weapons

Every substance has a complex composition (structure). The smallest particle which possesses the properties of a given substance is called a molecule. The molecule is formed by the smallest particles--atoms which cannot be chemically subdivided. Atoms are carriers of the properties of their corresponding chemical elements. Over 100 various types of atoms are known at the present time.

An atom (Figure 1.1) consists of a positively charged nucleus around which orbit negatively charged particles--electrons--which form the electron envelope of an atom.

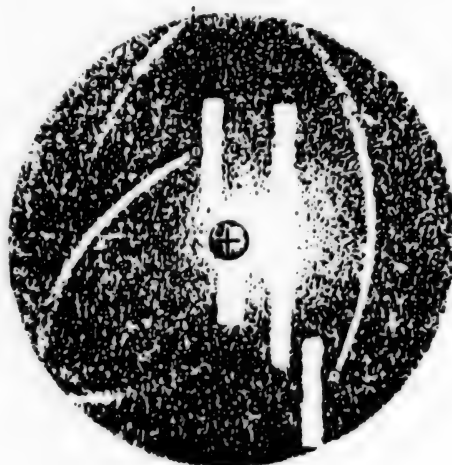


Figure 1.1. Atom structure

An electron is a tiny particle of a substance that bears a negative charge. An electric charge smaller than the charge of an electron has not yet been found. Electrons orbit around the nucleus in circular or elliptical paths and are held in close proximity to the nucleus due to electric charges (the nucleus is charged positively, the electron negatively).

During the mutual interaction of two atoms (e.g., during their collisions or during "bombarding" of an atom by charged particles) the atom can lose one or more electrons. As the result, it will be positively charged. Such an atom is called a positive ion. The released electrons then form negative ions. The process during which ions are generated is called ionization.

Ionization causes the physical properties of a substance to become altered. For example, ionized air becomes a good conductor of electricity; in live organisms ionization interferes with vitally important processes.

The nucleus of an atom, just as the atom itself, has a complex composition (structure). It is formed by two types of elemental particles, protons and neutrons, which are called nuclides.

A proton is an elementary particle carrying a positive electric charge, the absolute value of which is equal to that of an electron.

Nuclei of various types of atoms contain a varying number of protons and, thus, a varying electric charge.

The number of electrons in an electron envelope always coincides with the number of protons in its nucleus. For that reason an atom under normal conditions is electrically neutral, as if it were not electrically charged.

A neutron is a particle of the nucleus that carries no electric charge.

Some atoms of one and the same chemical element, the nuclei of which contain a varying number of neutrons, are called isotopes.

The nuclei of atoms of most elements are so solid that their division into parts poses great difficulties. However, in nature there exist elements whose nuclei undergo spontaneous decay which generates much simpler nuclei. These elements are radioactive. The decay of the nuclei of such atoms is accompanied by the release of nuclear energy.

Nuclei of atoms of radioactive elements do not decay instantly, but gradually. Thus, the amount of energy released per unit of time is relatively very small.

However, it is possible to create artificially conditions under which the nuclei of some radioactive elements, e.g., uranium 235 or plutonium 239, decay into parts (split-off fragments) within a millionth of a second, meaning practically at the same time. In the latter case an enormous amount of nuclear energy is released almost instantaneously--precipitating a fissile nuclear explosion. The nuclear energy released in this manner is used in fissile nuclear charges.



However, nuclear energy can be also released as the result of combining (bonding) of nuclei. This property (capacity) is possessed by some isotopes of hydrogen and lithium. As the result of the combining of nuclei of these isotopes new nuclei are created, whereby substantially more energy is released than during the decay of uranium and plutonium nuclei. However, the combining of nuclei occurs at very high temperatures (millions of degrees Celsius). Therefore, charges which operate on the principle of nuclei combination are called thermonuclear.

Nuclear ammunition is constituted by warheads of rockets, bombs, grenades and mines holding either a fissile or thermonuclear charge.

Explosions of nuclear ammunition are characterized by extraordinarily great force, many times greater than the force of explosion of conventional ammunition. The force of explosion of nuclear ammunition is compared with the force of explosion of a tritium charge, which has the same destructive effect. This relation is called the tritium equivalent.

The force of the nuclear ammunition known at the present time ranges from several tons to several tens of millions of tons.

Nuclear ammunition is divided according to the size of its tritium equivalent into:

very small force	up to 1 kt
small force	from 1 to 10 kt
medium force	from 10 to 100 kt
large force	from 100 kt to 1 Mt
very large force	over 1 Mt

#### Special Features of Nuclear Explosion

There is a basic difference between the explosion of nuclear ammunition and that of conventional ammunition. A nuclear explosion progresses in a millionth of a second (approximately 1,000 times faster than a tritium explosion) and is accompanied by release of a tremendous amount of energy (thermal and radioactive radiation).

In contrast to the explosion of a conventional charge, a nuclear explosion is accompanied by a great flux of luminous radiation. Even during sunny weather, its blinding flash of light illuminates the terrain and the sky up to a distance of tens of kilometers. Immediately after the flash, during above-ground explosion, a fire ball (during explosion on the ground hemisphere) starts forming at the epicenter of the explosion which forms a luminous region that is the source of strong luminous radiation.

In the center (epicenter) of the explosion the temperature reaches several million degrees in a very short time, causing transition of the charge into a gaseous state. The overheated gases expand in the luminous region with a great force and exert pressure on the adjoining layer of air. This creates a great difference in pressure at the boundary of the compression, generating a pressure wave which propagates from the epicenter in all directions.

Simultaneously with luminous radiation and the pressure wave, there propagates in the epicenter a great flux of gamma rays and neutrons generated in the course of nuclear reaction and during decay of radioactive fragments. The field of gamma rays and neutrons generated during the nuclear explosion is called penetrating radiation.

In addition, a nuclear explosion generates in the surrounding area electromagnetic phenomena, which are called the electromagnetic pulse of a nuclear explosion.

The duration of luminescence of the fire ball depends on the size of the charge and lasts for only a few seconds. Since the specific weight of gases forming the fire ball is substantially lower than the specific weight of the surrounding atmosphere, the fire ball starts ascending rapidly. In so doing it forms a mushroom-like cloud which contains cooling gases, water vapor and the dust absorbed from the earth's surface. After reaching an altitude of 12-15 km the cloud spreads out to a considerable diameter (up to several kilometers). Inside the cloud is dispersed a great amount of radioactive substances which, particularly during underground, ground-level and low above-ground explosion, gradually fall to the surface of the earth in the direction of the cloud's path. This fallout of radioactive substances creates a radioactive contamination of the terrain and of objects.

Thus, a nuclear explosion generates a strong wave, intensive luminous radiation, penetrating radiation and an electromagnetic pulse. Radioactive products create radioactive contamination of the terrain and of objects. All of these phenomena are called destructive factors of nuclear explosion.

The point on the surface of the earth above which the aerial explosion occurred is the explosion's epicenter. The point of a ground-level or underground explosion is called the explosion's center.

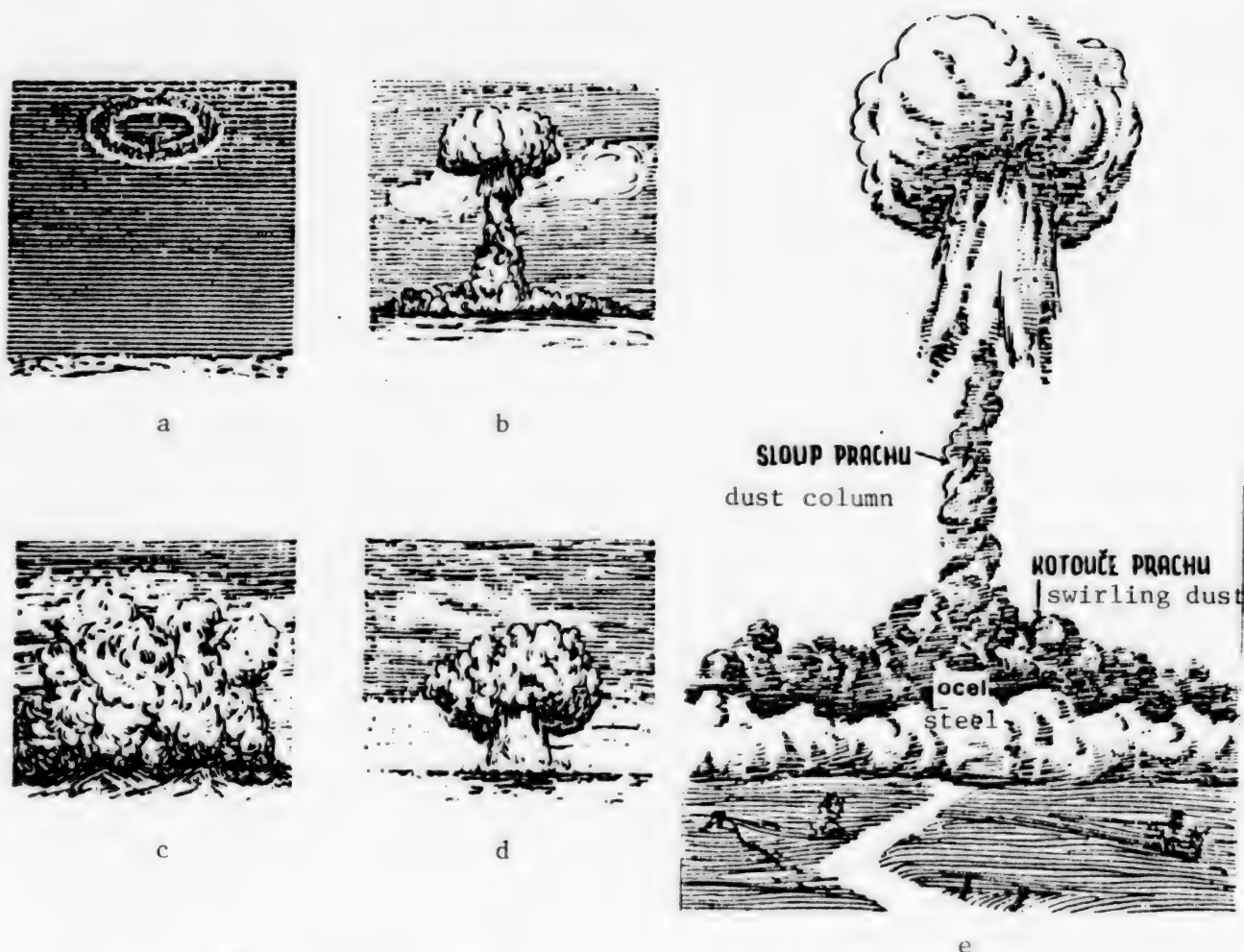


Figure 1.2. Configuration of radioactive cloud during various types of nuclear explosion

a--at high altitude; b--at ground level; c--underground; d--underwater; e--aerial

#### Types of Nuclear Explosions and Their Characteristics

Depending on the type of objective and target that are to be attained by the use of nuclear ammunition, the nuclear explosion can be carried out above the surface of the earth, on its surface, underground and underwater. Nuclear explosions are consequently divided into:

- high-altitude (stratospheric),
- aerial (low and high),
- ground level,
- underground,
- underwater.

A high-altitude nuclear explosion is one which occurs at altitudes of 10 or more kilometers. It is used for the destruction of aircraft, rockets and other flying objects.

A high-altitude explosion (at several tens of kilometers) generates a spherical luminous region at the point of explosion. After its cooling a turbulent annular cloud is formed. No column or cloud of dust is generated by this type of nuclear explosion (Figure 1.2a).

An aerial nuclear explosion is an explosion at an altitude where the luminous region does not touch the surface of the earth (water).

The luminous region during an aerial explosion has the form of a sphere. Together with gradual expansion, the fire ball rapidly ascends, cools off and gradually forms a turbulent cloud. During the rising of the fire ball and of the turbulent cloud a strong ascending flux of air that carries (absorbs) dust swirling on the surface of the earth is generated. During a nuclear explosion at low altitude above the earth's surface there occurs gradual permeation of the ascending flux of air (including dust) with the cloud, producing the characteristic mushroom-like configuration. However, when the aerial nuclear explosion occurs at a higher altitude, the dust column does not merge with the cloud (Figure 1.2e).

Radioactive contamination of the terrain occurs in a high aerial explosion only in the area of its epicenter. No contamination occurs in the direction of the cloud's travel. During a low aerial explosion, contamination of the terrain in the direction of cloud travel will be very small.

Aerial nuclear strikes can be used by the enemy for the elimination of live personnel and combat equipment on the battlefield, destruction of metropolitan and industrial structures, disabling of aircraft on airfields, etc.

A ground-level nuclear explosion is carried out on the surface of the earth or at an altitude where the luminous region comes into contact with the earth, and has the shape of a hemisphere. As soon as the luminous region starts to rise, it darkens, changes into a turbulent cloud which carries with it a column of dust, and immediately forms a mushroom-like shape (Figure 1.2b). On the earth's surface is formed a crater the depth and shape of which depend on the altitude and force of the explosion. The diameter of the crater depends on the force of the explosion and can extend up to several hundred meters.

The considerable amount of dust which rises simultaneously with the cloud becomes intermixed with the radioactive products generated by the explosion. In fallout to the surface of the earth it produces strong radioactive contamination both in the area of the explosion and in the direction of the cloud's travel. The length of the contaminated zone can extend over several hundred kilometers.

Ground-level nuclear explosions are to destroy resistant objects and troops deployed in ready defense.

An underground nuclear explosion (Figure 1.2c) is carried out by planting a nuclear charge under the earth's surface. The luminous region is not visible, and penetrating radiation and the wave are considerably weakened in the air. However, propagation of the wave in the ground is stronger and resembles an earthquake. At the point of the explosion is created a great crater from which

a great amount of soil intermixed with radioactive substances is catapulted into the atmosphere. These then form the characteristic column, the height of which can reach up to several hundred meters. There occurs a very strong contamination of the terrain in the area of the crater as well in the area of travel of the radioactive column (cloud).

Underground nuclear blasts are used to destroy particularly important objects on the ground and rock slides in mountains.

An underwater nuclear explosion (Figure 1.2d) is accompanied by the generation of a water column and surface waves. The size and nature of surface waves depend on the force and depth of the explosion. Luminous radiation is of no practical significance and the efforts of penetrating radiation are considerably weakened. The key destructive factor is an underwater wave.

#### Brief Characterization of the Destructive Effects of Nuclear Explosions

A pressure wave is an area of strong compression of the medium (air, water) which propagates at a great speed in all directions. It can cause the elimination of live personnel, damage or destroy combat equipment and installations.

The degree of the shock wave's impact on live personnel depends on the magnitude and type of explosion, on the distance from the center (epicenter) of the explosion and on the extent to which use was made of the protective properties of structures, the terrain, combat equipment, etc. The extent of impact (casualties) on live personnel can be light, medium, heavy and very heavy.

Light casualties will, as a rule, include temporary damage to hearing, light bruises, sprains and dislocations of extremities. This degree of impact will be encountered by unprotected live personnel, during an aerial nuclear explosion of 20 kt magnitude within a distance of 2,300 m, during ground-level explosion within a distance of 2,100 m.

Medium casualties will be characterized by loss of consciousness with subsequent strong headaches, partial loss of memory, damage to organs of hearing, bleeding from the mouth and ears, fractures and severe dislocations of extremities. This degree of impact will be encountered by unprotected live personnel, during an aerial nuclear explosion of 20 kt magnitude within a distance of 1,850 m, during ground-level explosion within a distance of 1,450 m.

Characteristic of heavy casualties will be extensive damage to the entire organism, fracture of extremities, partial damage to the brain, lungs and organs located in the abdominal region.

Very heavy casualties will in most cases be fatal.

Of combat equipment, the greatest amount of damage by a wave will be sustained by aviation and radio engineering systems and vehicles. Less damage will be sustained by armored carriers and tanks. For example, an aerial nuclear explosion of 20 kt magnitude will destroy trucks within a distance of 1,400 m, tanks within a distance of 450 m, and artillery pieces within a distance of 850 m from the epicenter of the explosion. Equipment located in protective trenches will be eliminated only at shorter distances than unprotected equipment.



Trenches with reinforcement will suffer substantially less damage than unreinforced trenches. Thus, e.g., during a 20 kt aerial nuclear explosion unreinforced trenches will suffer heavy damage within a distance of 900 m, heavy-type covers only within a distance of 310 m from the explosion's epicenter.

Propagation of the wave will be affected by the configuration (relief) of the terrain. Destructive effects of the wave will be greater on enfilade slopes; on defilade slopes it will be smaller in comparison to its effects in open terrain. Destructive effects will also be smaller in narrow valleys and gullies lying perpendicular to the direction of the wave's propagation. Heavily forested areas at a depth of 50-200 m from their edge will also partially reduce the effects of a wave. On the other hand, it poses the risk of more casualties to personnel and damage to combat equipment due to fallen trees.

It is necessary to know that the above-atmospheric pressure in the wave front rapidly decreases with increasing distance from the center of the explosion. The wave's rate of propagation depends on the amount of its pressure. In the vicinity of the center of the explosion, where it is considerable, the wave propagates at a speed of up to tens of kilometers per second. Pressure in the wave decreases with increasing distance from the center of the explosion and the speed of the wave's front also decreases.

A pressure wave covers a distance of 1,000 m in 2 seconds, 2,000 m in 5 seconds, 3,000 m in 8 seconds. Thus, if a soldier sees the flash of a nuclear explosion he can take cover and thus reduce the effects of the pressure wave or even eliminate them entirely.

Luminous radiation is a flux of ultraviolet and visible, infrared radiation. The duration of its effects is given by the duration of luminosity of the luminous region, which at a low magnitude represents approximately 2.5 seconds, at medium magnitude 2.5 to 4.5 seconds and at great magnitude more than 4.5 seconds.

Luminous radiation can cause temporary blindness, burns on unprotected parts of the body and also burns resulting from igniting of clothing or a fire.

Differentiation is made among four degrees of burns. First degree burns are characterized by reddening of the skin and swellings, second degree burns by the occurrence of blisters, third degree burns by dying (necrosis) of the skin, fourth degree burns by necrosis (carbonization) of the skin and subcutaneous tissues.

In addition to eliminating humans, luminous radiation can inflame wooden parts of combat equipment, rubber or textile components of clothing or combat equipment, or cause their carbonization.

A layer of any material impervious to light (wall, tarpaulin, armor, trees) that casts a shadow can offer protection against luminous radiation.

The destructive effects of luminous radiation depend on the transparency of the atmosphere. Considerable weakening of these effects occurs during fog, smoke cover, rain and snow precipitation.

Penetrating radiation is a flux of gamma rays and neutrons. It propagates from the area of explosion of a nuclear charge and from its cloud. The duration of the effects of penetrating radiation tends to last for 10-15 seconds from the instant of explosion.

Penetrating radiation causes the ionization of atoms of live tissue and interferes with the function of various important organs. The consequences of such interference with the functioning of the organism are called radiation disease.

The progress and consequences of radiation disease depend on the dose of radiation (exposure). The higher the dose during overall external irradiation and the shorter the exposure time, the higher the degree of damage sustained by the organism.

A dose of 100-200 roentgens received by live personnel in four consecutive days causes radiation disease of the first degree. A dose of 200-400 roentgens produces radiation disease of the second degree. Under the effects of this radiation a live force may lose its capacity for combat as soon as several hours after irradiation, in some cases only after 2-3 weeks. Combat capacity can be restored with proper treatment within 1.5-2 months.

Doses of 400-600 roentgens produce third degree radiation disease. The first symptoms of affliction appear, as a rule, immediately after irradiation. The disease shows very intensive progress, its latent period is shortened. With present-day methods of treatment the afflicted can be cured in several months.

A dose exceeding 600 roentgens causes a very heavy impact on live personnel, usually with fatal consequences (radiation disease of the fourth degree).

Penetrating radiation becomes weakened by passage through any medium. A layer of material which weakens the dose of penetrating radiation to half of its initial value is called a half-value layer. This means that two half-value layers attenuate penetrating radiation 4 x; four half-value layers 16 x. Trenches and dugouts considerably reduce the dose of penetrating radiation, light- and heavy-type covers practically eliminate penetrating radiation.

Penetrating radiation can render radio engineering equipment useless. It has practically no effects on other combat equipment. Only very high doses (on the order of thousands and tens of thousands of roentgens) can cause darkening of lenses of optical instruments (telescopes, range finders, direction finders, periscopes). On the other hand, photographic materials (films, paper) become impaired at doses of as low as 2-3 roentgens.

Effects of neutrons on the surface of the earth or on the tracks of tanks, etc., render the surface and tracks radioactive for up to several hours.

The doses of penetrating radiation that can be received by live personnel during a nuclear explosion depend, first of all, on the distance from the point of the explosion and on utilization of the protective properties of the terrain or of combat equipment. For example, an unprotected live force receives during a ground-level nuclear explosion of 38 kt magnitude at a distance of 2 kilometers a dose of about 30 roentgens, at a distance of 1.5 km a dose of 300 roentgens. If the live force is in tanks, the received dose will be six times smaller.

An electromagnetic pulse is generated during all types of nuclear explosions. Its destructive effects involve damage to various types of electrotechnical and radio communication equipment, interfering with the operation of control systems, communications and electric power supply.

#### Peculiarities of Destructive Effects During Explosion of Nuclear Mines

The explosion of nuclear mines planted on the earth's surface produces the same destructive effects as a ground-level explosion. In such a case the maximum effects are achieved primarily due to the aerial pressure wave.

##### Attenuation of penetrating radiation

<u>Type of material</u>	<u>2x</u>	<u>4x</u>	<u>8x</u>	<u>16x</u>
Layer of earth	14 cm	28 cm	42 cm	56 cm
Layer of wood	25 cm	50 cm	75 cm	100 cm
Layer of snow	50 cm	100 cm	150 cm	200 cm
Armor	2.8 cm	5.6 cm	8.4 cm	11.2 cm
Layer of concrete	10 cm	20 cm	30 cm	40 cm

The key destructive factor in the detonation of a nuclear mine planted under the surface of the earth will be the pressure wave which will propagate in the ground. The aerial pressure wave in such a case will be negligible, luminous radiation will be absorbed by the earth, penetrating radiation will be considerably attenuated and, for all practical purposes, lose its importance. However, there will be a considerable increase in radioactive contamination in the area of the crater. The degree of radioactive contamination of the terrain will be initially considerably higher not only in the area of the explosion, but also in its vicinity in the direction of the cloud's path. The degree of contamination will rapidly decrease with increasing distance from the point of explosion. This is due to the fallout of a great volume of radioactive substances in the immediate vicinity of the crater.

The activation of a nuclear mine deep under the surface of the earth produces a dust wave with a high content of radioactive substances which will propagate in the direction of the wind through the surface layer of the atmosphere for 1 to 2 hours after the explosion. Its cloud poses a considerable danger for live personnel. In addition, it will reduce visibility.

During detonation nuclear mines create craters the dimensions of which will depend on the explosive force and depth of the planted mines.

## 2. Radioactive Substances and Radioactive Contamination During Nuclear Blast

Nuclear explosion generates a tremendous amount of radioactive substances. They include products of disintegration of the nuclear charge (radioactive split-off fragments) generated in the disintegration of the nuclei of uranium or plutonium, radioactive substances generated through the effects of electrons and residues of nonreacted nuclear charge.

Radioactive substances affect the human organism by radiation which includes a flux of alpha particles (positively charged particles which are nuclei of atoms of helium), beta particles (flux of light particles-electrons) and gamma rays (electromagnetic rays resembling x-ray radiation). Alpha and beta particles as well as gamma rays cause the ionization of the medium through which they pass (air, human tissue, metal, etc.).

The path followed by alpha and beta particles as well as by gamma rays in a certain medium is called penetration length. The penetration length of these particles and rays varies with the medium through which they pass. The greatest penetration length is that of gamma rays (through air up to several hundred meters without any substantial attenuation). The penetration length of beta particles is substantially smaller and it is approximately 20 meters through the air. The penetration length of alpha particles in the air reaches only several centimeters, but due to their relatively large mass and charge their ionization capacity is considerable.

The following conclusions may be drawn from a comparison of the capacity for penetration and ionization of alpha, beta and gamma radiation: while the capacity of alpha particles for ionization is great, their capacity for penetration is poor, so that normal clothing offers adequate protection against them. While the capacity of beta particles for ionization is smaller than that of alpha particles, their capacity for penetration is greater. Thus, normal clothing does not offer adequate protection. Reliable protection is offered by covers, tank armor, armored carriers. The penetrative capacity of gamma rays is very substantial. Protection against them is offered primarily by covers.

From the above it follows that humans and animals can become afflicted if radioactive substances penetrate unprotected skin, mucous membranes of the eyes, nose, mouth or the digestive tract. In addition, affliction can occur as the result of the effects of external irradiation by beta particles and, particularly, by gamma rays. Radioactive substances do not damage combat equipment, but live personnel operating it can become afflicted. For this reason radioactive substances must be removed from the surface of combat equipment.

The destructive effects of radioactive substances depend primarily on gamma radiation and are therefore measured by the size of gamma-radiation dose or radiation dose (D). This dose (exposure) is expressed in military practice in roentgens (R).

A roentgen is a dose of (exposure to) gamma radiation which generates in 1 kg of irradiated air, after braking to a complete stop in air, so many ion pairs that they carry a total charge of  $2.58 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{C}$ , in both plus and minus.

Recomputation to the main unit of exposure:

$$1 \text{ R} = 2.58 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{C}.$$

As a rule, the radiation dose is determined for a certain period of time, called the irradiation time (time spent in contaminated area, time needed to scale a contaminated area). In order to characterize radioactive contamination of the terrain, the radiation dose is measured from fallout of radioactive substances from the cloud to their complete decay.

The term introduced in military practice for the assessment of the intensity of gamma radiation in a contaminated area is "radiation level" (P), which is measured in roentgens per hour ( $\text{R} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ ).

The amount of radioactive substances which have fallen onto the terrain or penetrated organisms is measured by their activity.

The key unit of activity is a Becquerel (Bq). In general, differentiation is made between the former unit of activity, a Curie (Ci), and a new unit, the Becquerel (Bq). The following relation applies for both:

$$1 \text{ Ci} = 3.7 \cdot 10^{10} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} = 3.7 \cdot 10^{10} \text{ Bq}.$$

The degree of contamination of the surface of combat equipment, clothing, the surface of human body and of other objects is measured in milliroentgens per hour ( $\text{mR} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ ).

The degree of radioactive contamination of the terrain and dimensions of contamination zones of a nuclear explosion depend on the force and type of explosion, meteorological conditions, on the nature of the terrain and on soil composition.

Radioactive contamination of the terrain and of various objects is particularly strong during a ground-level nuclear explosion. A considerable volume of earth (dust) is lifted by the ascending flow of air and forms a cloud in which is concentrated a substantial part of radioactive substances that mutually intermix. After their fallout to the earth's surface there occurs radioactive contamination of the terrain, both in the area of the explosion and in the direction of cloud travel.

During their fallout from the cloud the radioactive particles also contaminate the atmosphere below the cloud. They form on the earth's surface in the direction of the cloud's path a zone of radioactive contamination of the terrain--the so-called radioactive trail.

Radioactive contamination of the terrain in the trail is uneven. It is at its highest near the center of the explosion. The configuration of the radioactive trail and the degree of contamination in it depend on the direction and the median wind speed (measured up to the ceiling reached by the cloud generated by the nuclear explosion).



The intensity of the radiation level in the radioactive trail of a nuclear explosion decreases from the trail's axis toward its [lateral] boundaries and along the axis of the trail from the center of the explosion to its end. The radiation level at a given point decreases with time. This decrease is faster in the first several hours after the explosion; later the decrease is slower. The radiation level decreases 10 x within 7 hours after the explosion, 100 x in 2 days after the explosion and 1,000 x after 14 days.

Aerial nuclear explosions will produce zones of contaminated terrain and degree of contamination that are substantially smaller than in ground-level explosions. In addition, radioactive contamination will in most cases pose no serious risk for troop operations.

An underground nuclear explosion produces greater radioactive contamination of the terrain in the area of the explosion and in the direction of the radioactive cloud's path than in a ground-level explosion. This is caused by the fact that the considerable volume of earth that enters the radioactive cloud falls out faster after intermixing with radioactive products both in the area of the explosion and in the direction of the radioactive cloud's path.

During an underwater nuclear explosion almost all radioactive products remain in the water, causing strong contamination. The radioactive rain which follows the explosion and the generated tidal wave can cause a strong radioactive contamination of the coastline. The radioactivity of water decreases rapidly both as a consequence of radioactive decay of products generated by the explosion and as a consequence of contaminated water intermixing with uncontaminated water.

High-altitude nuclear explosions produce practically no contamination of the terrain.

A nuclear mine explosion can occur at ground level or underground. In either case there occurs strong radioactive contamination in the direction of the cloud's path and in the immediate vicinity of the crater.

Precipitation can substantially affect the degree of radioactive contamination of the terrain. Rain and snow accelerate the fallout of radioactive substances during ground-level explosions. This could cause contamination 10 times higher than would occur during clear weather.

Neutron ammunition was studied in the United States as early as the latter half of the 1950's. The actual development of neutron ammunition started in the mid-1960's. In January of 1975 the Pentagon launched the development of a 203.2 mm caliber neutron grenade. An N-head for the LANCE guided missile and a 155 mm caliber N-grenade were also designed.

The main destructive effect of neutron ammunition is an enormous flux of neutrons, while the other destructive factors are less significant. This involves modification of a thermonuclear charge of up to 10 kt wherein the generation of neutrons is increased at the expense of thermal energy. The neutron effect of neutron ammunition is at least 10 times higher than that of

an equivalent normal nuclear charge. On the other hand, its destructive effect caused by the pressure wave and by thermal radiation is very small, generally 10 times smaller than that of a normal nuclear charge.

In the explosion of a 1 kt N-warhead the destructive factors of the nuclear explosion affect buildings, destroy transportation and other means as well as live personnel up to a distance of 130 m from the epicenter. Up to 800 m there occurs very little, more or less negligible damage due to the pressure wave and luminous radiation, but there occurs fatal irradiation, because the neutron dose ranges between 5,000-8,000 rads and fatal consequences result from doses of approximately 3,000 rads and sometimes even less.

At a dose of 1 rad 1 kg of substance absorbs  $10^2$  of energy. According to the new measuring system, it is replaced by the unit "gray" (Gy).

$$1 \text{ rad} = 10^2 \text{ J.kg}^{-1} = 10^2 \text{ Gy}$$

Neutron radiation is more penetrating and has a longer range in comparison to the gamma radiation of fissionable nuclear ammunition. In addition, the interaction between neutrons and substance is subject to different immutable laws than the interaction of gamma radiation. From this it follows that different principles apply to protection against neutron flux than apply to gamma radiation, where protection is the more effective the more bulky and stronger the material. The method of protection against neutron flux depends on its energy spectrum. For this reason the material used for protection against neutron flux must be multilayer. Considerably effective protection is offered by a strong layer of concrete or moist earth. A 30 cm thick layer of concrete attenuates neutron flux approximately 10 x. The same effect is provided by 45 cm of moist earth. Layered armor must be used in the design of tanks and armored carriers, e.g., special steel, ceramics, plastics filled with compounds of boron, lithium and barium (Figure 1.3).

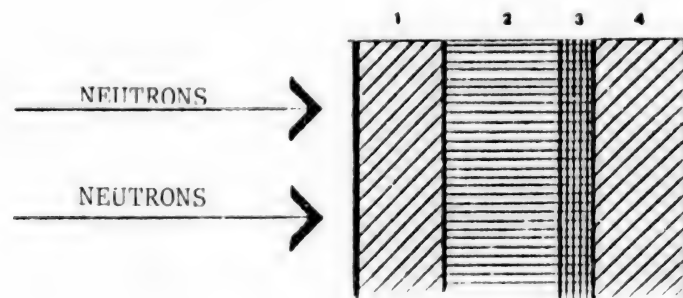


Figure 1.3. Layered material for protection against neutrons  
1--deceleration of fast neutrons by inelastic scattering; 2--deceleration of medium energy neutrons by elastic scattering; 3--interception of decelerated neutrons; 4--absorption of secondary gamma radiation

### 3. Devices for Use of Nuclear Charges

Nuclear arms are the most potent means of mass destruction in contemporary combat. They are intended for destroying means of mass destruction (primarily nuclear arms), eliminating live personnel and combat equipment, crippling the command system, destroying stockpiles and disorganizing rear echelon activities.

The key means for delivery of this ammunition on targets are rockets and missiles. The so-called tactical rockets will be used for missions on a tactical scale.

Thermonuclear and nuclear charges can also be used in aircraft bombs and artillery grenades.

Nuclear mines of various degrees of effectiveness have been introduced in the equipment of ground forces of the United States' armed forces. This ammunition is to be used for the destruction of large bridges, dams, tunnels, important railroad [text missing]

[text missing] of Nuclear Weapons

The destructive effects of nuclear arms are combined, making protection against them considerably difficult. Dependable protection of live personnel against the effects of nuclear arms is provided by many measures.

One of the basic measures is the utilization of the protective properties of combat equipment, of the terrain and of various protective structures. Combat equipment armor reduces the radius of elimination of live personnel by a pressure wave, reduces radiation doses during contamination of the surrounding terrain (in tanks 10 x, in armored carriers 4 x). Live personnel can find protection under natural cover (ravines, gorges, canals, narrow valleys, forests). The impact of all destructive effects is substantially reduced by all types of protective structures (trenches, dug-out shelters, emergency covers, covers). Concealing of live personnel in trenches, dugouts and connecting trenches reduces the radius of elimination by a pressure wave by 1.9-2 x in comparison to unprotected live personnel, fully prevents elimination by luminous radiation and reduces the effects of penetrating radiation of a nuclear blast 40 x.

Emergency covers offer to live personnel full protection against luminous radiation, reduce the dose of irradiation by penetrating radiation 100 x and more, and considerably reduce the effects of a pressure wave.

When operating in contaminated areas the troops must use their individual protective equipment against chemical agents which will prevent penetration of radioactive substances into the organism and on unprotected parts of the body, as well as make use of the protective properties of combat equipment, all types of covers, and also protect equipment against contamination by radioactive substances.

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## V. Radiation and Chemical Detection Equipment

### 1. Radiation Detection Equipment

Surveying of radioactive contamination and measurement of radiation level in the terrain is carried out by means of radiation detection instrumentation (military dosimetric instruments). The basic series of these instruments is made up of

- IT-65 intensity meter,
- AS-67 automatic radiation level detector,
- DP-3b mounted roentgenmeter.

The operation of these radiation detection instruments is based on the use of the ionization method principles. This method is based on the fact that nuclear particles cause ionization of electrically neutral atoms (molecules) of gas and divide them into positive and negative particles. Electric field effects in this ionized gaseous medium precipitate a channeled flow of ionized particles, which in turn precipitate a flow of electric current. This current is called ionizing current and its intensity is commensurate with the intensity of radioactive radiation.

#### IT-65 and IT-65a Intensity Meters

The IT-65 intensity meter is a portable dosimetric instrument. It is designed for measuring the level of radiation in contaminated terrain per hour (R/h) and for controlling the degree of radioactive contamination of persons, surfaces of equipment, objects, terrain, foodstuffs and water in milliroentgens per hour (mR/h). It also facilitates measurement of the radiation level during aerial reconnaissance.

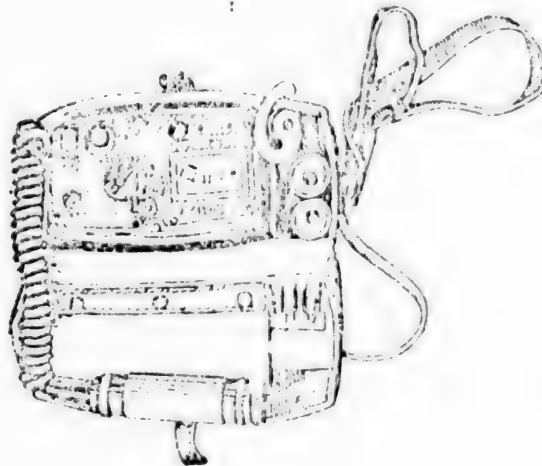


Figure 5.1 IT-65 intensity meter in carrying case

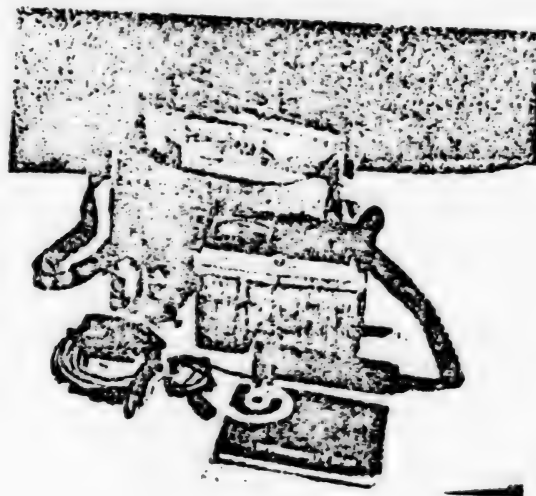


Figure 5.2 IT-65 intensity meter removed from its carrying case

The IT-65a intensity meter is a modification of the IT-65 instrument, which has identical tacticotechnical data and identical operating conditions (technical modifications apply only to part of the device's internal equipment).

The instrument is used for measuring in a range of 0.05 mR/h to 500 R/h in two ranges:

1. 0.05 to 500 mR/h (mR/h range is marked in black).
2. 0.05 to 500 R/h (R/h range is marked in red).

In controlling the degree of contamination on the basis of measurement of the level of gamma radiation, the rotary diaphragm on the face of the probe must be closed (white area) and in detection of radiation it must be open (black area).

The employed Geiger-Muller counter makes it possible to measure beta radiation which passes through the window mass. The instrument is waterproof. Two monocells or vehicular batteries with a 12 V or 24 V voltage serve as power sources. The average continuous operating time of one set of fresh sources is 30 hours. The power sources are inserted into the instrument prior to use; otherwise they are always disconnected.

Dimensions and weight:

--dimensions of the set 260 x 160 x 115 mm

--overall weight of the set 2.80 kg

The set's accessories include the following:

- IT-65 intensity meter with probe,
- carrying case with attached control radiator,
- earphone,



- interconnecting cable,
- protective rubber slip-on covers for probe (5 pcs),
- recording log with operating instructions,
- power sources--two monocells,
- two replacement bulbs located in the lid of the carrying case.

#### Description of Key Parts

The IT-65 intensity meter is designed as a portable instrument that can be suspended from an operator's neck. The functional part of the instrument is located in a plastic case with a separate compartment for the insertion of power feed sources.

The front panel contains the scale of the measuring instrument, a switch for partial ranges and types of power feed, a potentiometer button for setting calibration voltage, leadout of the probe cable, earphone connector, push button for scale illumination, connector for connecting the instrument to a power source (storage battery).

The partial range switch has six positions: "VYP" the instrument is off, the measuring hand points to the first scale line marked 0.05 mR/h; "KN" voltage control; "R/h" measuring gamma radiation level in the range of 0.05-500 R/h; "mR/h" measuring the level of beta and gamma radiation in a range of 0.05-500 mR/h; above the "VYP" position are the markings:

B "mR/h"  
A "R/h"  
T "KN"

In these positions the instrument is fed power from the monocells. When the instrument is fed from a storage battery the switch of partial ranges is in the "AKU" position.

The carrying case is designed to hold the IT-65 intensity meter set during transportation, during measurement and storage. The instrument is placed so that it occupies the left-hand part of the carrying case, with accessories in the right-hand part. The compartment intended for accessories holds two monocells, earphones, a feed cable for connection to a vehicle's power system and protective slip covers for the probe. The 90 Sr-90Y control radiator is attached to the left-hand outer side of the carrying case and serves for control of the "mR/h" range. Next to the instrument is inserted the "Record Log and Operating Instructions." The carrying case is provided with a hanging strap and a clamping tape for attachment around the operator's waist.

The probe is cylindrical in shape. Within it is located a Geiger-Muller counter and circuits for pulse processing. On the face of the probe is a rotary diaphragm for filtration of beta radiation. The earphones are designed for acoustic indication of radiation on the measuring range "mR/h." The control radiator is intended to control the functioning of the instrument in the "mR/h" range. The interconnecting cable serves for feeding power to the instrument from a vehicle's power system.

## Operation of the Instrument

### Procedure in preparing the intensity meter for use:

- open the lid of the carrying case;
- check the set for completeness;
- insert power feed sources into the instrument;
- take out earphones, put them on and connect them to the instrument;
- disconnect the probe (only when measuring in the mR/h range);
- flip the switch from the "VYP" position to the "KN" position (the indicator hand must become stabilized at the scale sector "KN" marked green).

If the hand is below the designated sector, the power feed source must be changed, the switch must then be flipped to the "R/h" range (without irradiation of the instrument the hand rests ahead of the start of the scale) and the instrument is ready to take measurements.

Control of the instrument's functioning for measurements in the "R/h" range is achieved as follows:

--the "KAL" push button is depressed and the dial marked "KAL" is turned until the indicator hand points to the "KAL" sign shown on the scale (when feeding power from new monoclells it is necessary to check correct value setting in the "KAL" switch position on the scale and on the meter up to 20 minutes after putting the instrument into operation). Then the switch is flipped to the "mR/h" range. The probe with open diaphragm (black openings) is brought close to the control radiator while monitoring the deflection of the hand on the meter. The acoustic signal must be monitored at the same time in the earphones. (When the instrument is connected to a vehicle's 24 V power system the two bulbs on the interconnecting cable are removed. Proceed according to the provisions in the instructions for operation of the instrument.)

### Partial ranges

Range	<u>Position of diaphragm for beta radiation on probe during measuring</u>	
	<u>beta-gamma radiation</u>	<u>gamma radiation</u>
R/h	closed--not used in this range	closed--not used in this range
mR/h	open	closed

### Methodology of Measurements

During measurements the instrument is in the carrying case, suspended on the operator's chest and attached to the body by the clamping tape. The lid is opened so that it points toward the operator's body.

Measurements in the terrain contaminated by radioactive products of a nuclear explosion determine the level of gamma radiation at a distance of 70-100 cm from the surface of the contaminated terrain. In view of the fact that bulky objects partially screen radiation coming from the measured terrain, measurements must be done at a distance of at least 15-20 m away from the objects.

If contamination of the terrain is measured from vehicles or helicopters, the above conditions cannot be met. Thus, it is necessary to know the recomputation coefficient "K" which must be used to multiply the datum of an instrument located in a vehicle to arrive at a value corresponding to instrument data in open terrain. If the value of the attenuation coefficient "K" for the employed type of vehicle is not known, it can be determined by two measurements. The first is carried out in open terrain 15-20 m away from the vehicle ( $P_1$ ), and the second measurement is made in the vehicle ( $P_2$ ). The recomputation coefficient is equal to the ratio of these values:

$$K = \frac{P_1}{P_2}$$

Measurements of contamination of persons and surfaces of objects are made in the "mR/h" range with the rotary diaphragm of the probe closed (white areas). This makes it possible to determine the contamination of persons, surfaces of various objects, contamination of foodstuffs and water by radioactive products directly in the units' deployment. The entire measured object is checked step by step with the probe perpendicular to the measured surface. The distance between the facing side of the probe and the measured surface is 1 to 1.5 cm. Contamination of armaments, equipment, etc., is measured first at points with which persons come into direct contact. The facepiece of a protective mask and clothing are checked while spread out. Contamination of persons is checked from the front and back parts of the body. Main attention must be focussed on the face, neck, chest, abdomen, arms and soles of footwear that could be contaminated the most.

Determining the contamination of water calls for two samples of the water source being checked, the first from the surface layer of water and the second from the bottom. The volume of the samples after mixing in a suitable vessel (the size of a mass kit) must amount to approximately 1.5 liters. Contamination is measured by holding the probe perpendicularly close above the center of the water level must be 0.5 to 1 cm. After the meter hand has stabilized the reading is taken on the scale in "mR/h." Checking the contamination of foodstuffs is done in a similar way.

#### Care and Maintenance

Operations to be performed in basic and special maintenance are specified in the description and instructions for operation of the instrument. They consist essentially of taking out the power sources, removal of impurities, wiping the sources dry, lightly coating the surface of the instrument, except the probe, with a preservative agent.

All the important data regarding operation, maintenance, repairs and calibration are entered into the log. The requisite data for operation and maintenance of the instrument are listed in the description and instruction for operation of the instrument.

#### DP-3 Roentgen Meter

The instrument is intended for use in mobile units for measuring the level of gamma radiation in terrain contaminated by radioactive particles. It is designed for radiation detection from armored carriers, tanks and helicopters, which offer the possibility of connecting the instrument to their on-board power network with

12 and 26 V voltage. It measures the radiation level in a total range from 0.1 to 500 R/h. The instrument's weight is 3 kg.

The DP-3 roentgen meter set includes:

- the instrument,
- a probe,
- a connecting cable,
- a power-feed cable,
- a suspension yoke for the instrument,
- a suspension clip for the probe,
- spare parts.

On the front panel is a microammeter with a double-row scale (the first scale has range markings up to 0.05 R/h and the lower, second scale is marked with a range up to 50 R/h), a luminous indication bulb, a socket with bulb for illuminating the microammeter scale, fuses, a "Control" push button, brief instructions for preparing the instrument for operation, a switch with six possible positions: "On," "Off," and ranges "x1," "x10," "x100" and "x500."

Preparation of the instrument for operation consists of external inspection, checking for completeness and the instrument's capacity for operation. Individual parts of the roentgen meter are placed in their operating positions. Coupler plugs, protected against humidity by slip-on rubber coatings, are used to connect the power-feed and interconnecting cables to the instrument.

The voltage switch of the power sources in the instrument is checked for its position and is set into a position corresponding to the voltage of the on-board power system. An illumination bulb corresponding to the on-board power network is placed into the instrument's socket. After carefully checking the correct polarity of the feed voltage, the power-feed cable is connected to the onboard network. Poor connection can result in damage to the instrument.

The lever of the range-control switch is placed in the "On" position. This turns on the bulb illuminating the scale and the range control switch. The "Control" button is depressed after 5 minutes. Deflections of the measuring instrument's hand will become stabilized at scale value 0.4 0.8 and the luminous indication bulb is lit. A high-pitched tone can be heard in the instrument. When the "Control" button is disconnected the luminous indication bulb is not lit and the indicator hand of the measuring instrument becomes stabilized in a medium without ionizing radiation within the black marked sector at the beginning of the scale.

Measurement of the gamma radiation level is carried out on the corresponding range, which is found by gradual dialing of ranges from the highest to the lowest. This makes the instrument ready for operation.

#### AS-67 Automatic Radiation Level Detector

The AS-67 automatic detector makes it possible to measure or signal the radiation level at a preset value. It is intended for radiation detection from mobile equipment and from helicopters.

The instrument measures in five partial ranges from 0.01 R/h to 300 R/h. The instrument set contains:

- the instrument itself with a control radiator,
- the probe with a feed cable,
- a support plate with vibration dampers,
- the instrument's power feed cable.

The instrument is supplemented by a power source with a cable and an extension cable for the probe. The instrument operates in a voltage range of 11 V to 32 V.

Weight:

- instrument itself 2.9 kg
- vibrations damper 1.75 kg
- power source 2.45 kg

The instrument's continuous operating time is 20 hours.

Activation of the instrument for operation calls for:

- checking the instrument for completeness and lack of damage,
- connecting the instrument to a power source,
- checking proper functioning of the instrument.

The instrument must not be dismantled from mobile or stationary equipment during measurement. The instrument's measuring position is fixed and is given by the position of the supporting plate with vibration dampers to which the AS-67 instrument is permanently attached.

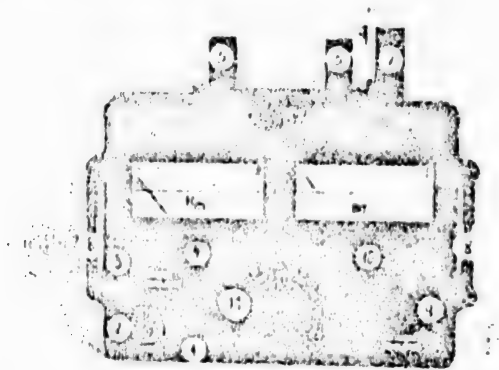


Figure 5.4 Front panel of AS-67

1--connector for power feed panel; 2--connector for cable of probe; 3--connector for connection of remote signalization cable; 4--instrument measuring radiation level; 5--springs for attachment of probe; 6--radiator diaphragm; 7--control radiator; 8--holder; 9--signalization setting knob; 10--automatic signalization measuring instrument; 11--range switch and dial



The methodology of measurements, maintenance and care of the instrument, including its suspension, must be carried out in accordance with the provisions of regulation Chem-23-3/1 and instructions for operating the instrument.

The instrument measures in five partial ranges from 0.01 R/h to 300 R/h:

- I. 20-300
- II. 2-30
- III. 0.2-3
- IV. 0.02-0.3
- V. 0.01-0.03

Power feed from a.c. network is 220 V 50 Hz, from a d.c. power source 12 V or 24 V.

#### RBZ-I M Radiometric Protective Block

The RBZ-I M protective block is a part installed in equipment to protect the crew automatically against the effects of a nuclear explosion's pressure wave and against radioactive dust.

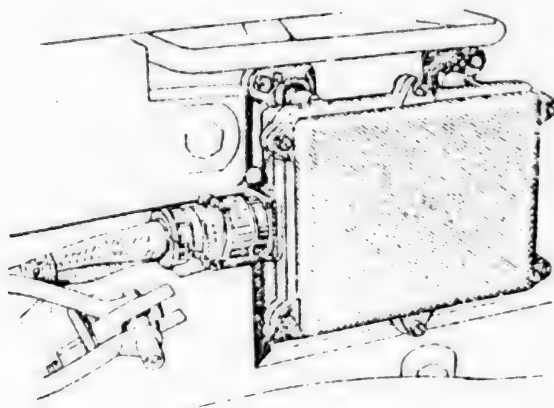


Figure 5.5 RBZ-I M radiometric protective block installed in equipment

In addition to protective reaction against a nuclear explosion's pressure wave, it also reacts against gamma radiation. At a radiation level of 4 R/h in the terrain (at a temperature of 20°C and relative humidity of 70 percent) the instrument activates the relay of the ventilator of the filtration and ventilation system which creates within the tank a higher than atmospheric air pressure free of dust. Each 1°C change in ambient temperature from normal conditions causes a change in the instrument's sensitivity to gamma radiation by 1.2 percent.

Adjustment and control of the instrument is carried out in accordance with the instrument's description and operating instructions.

## VI. Radioactive Irradiation Control Equipment

### 1. SKOJ-58a Set for Control of Irradiation of Individuals

1. SKOJ-58a set for control of irradiation of individuals is used for determining the irradiation doses of persons exposed to gamma and hard beta radiation.

The set contains: 50 pcs of SD 50 blank dosimeters; 5 pcs of T 5 automatic readout dosimeters; 5 pcs of T 50 automatic readout dosimeters; a loading and analyzing device with a handling adapter. The set is stored in a wooden box with all its accessories. Weight of the set is 7.8 kg.

The loading and analyzing device for dosimeters is used for loading and analyzing SD 50 blank dosimeters (with the use of the handling adapter) and for loading of T 5 and T 50 automatic readout dosimeters (without using the handling adapter). It is built into a small box cast from a light alloy and on the surface of the box are found the following parts: cap of casing for monocells, cap for the illuminating body, coupling lever, a bed for loading dosimeters with a cap for a microscope with an electrometer. Two monocells of 1.5 V voltage are used for feeding power to the loading and analyzing device.

The SD 50 dosimeter has two ranges. It has two independent ionization chambers, up to 5 R and up to 50 R. It can be used to measure doses of up to 5 R and up to 50 R. The head of the SD 50 dosimeter bears the following engravings:

- number of the set to which the dosimeter belongs,
- the type designation "SD" denoting a blank dosimeter,
- serial number of the dosimeter in the set.

The T 5 automatic readout dosimeter is a single range dosimeter up to 5 R with direct readout of the dose. It serves for direct determination of gamma radiation doses and dose increments. The dosimeter head is painted black and bears the following markings:

- number of the set to which the dosimeter belongs,
- the type designation of T 5 dosimeter,
- serial number of the dosimeter in the set.

The T 50 automatic readout dosimeter is a single range dosimeter up to 50 R with direct dose readout. On the dosimeter head which is painted by a basic color is engraved:

- number of the set to which the dosimeter belongs,
- the type designation of T 50 dosimeter,
- serial number of the dosimeter in the set.

Spontaneous drop in voltage in the dosimeter must not exceed 4 percent in 24 hours under normal conditions.

The handling adapter is used for correct loading and analyzing of the SD 50 blank dosimeters. The handling adapter determines the correct position of the

dosimeter in the loading bed. The handling adapter is affixed to the body of the loading bed and is moved by moderate pressure and turning from position marked "0," via position "S" and then via position "5," to position "50." The SD 50 dosimeter is at the same time gradually pushed into the loading bed and the ionization chambers are also gradually connected. In position "S" the illumination circuit is connected, in position "5" the ionization chamber for up to 5 R is connected, and in position "50" ionizing chambers for up to 5 R and up to 50 R are connected.

A lamp is used for illumination of the operating place in operation under darkness, in making entries, etc.

The blow-through balloon is used for cleaning the bed for loading the dosimeter and the loading contact of the dosimeter. Impurities must not be blown out by mouth.

#### Preparation of the Set for Operation

The box containing the SK0J-58a set is placed, if possible, on a clean, level and raised supporting surface (table, crate, automobile body, etc.) with the handle pointing toward the operator.

After loosening and opening of the safety clamps, the lid of the box is tilted, the loading and analyzing device is taken out and placed on the supporting surface. The screw of the loading bed closure is removed.

When working with blank dosimeters, the handling adapter is taken out of the lid of the box and placed on the table to the left of the loading and analyzing device. The box remains open during operation with the sets and serves for storing dosimeters.

Loading of SD 50 Dosimeter. The loading and analyzing device is placed on the table so that the microscope points toward the operator.

The DS 50 dosimeter is removed from the box by the right hand. The left hand unscrews the dosimeter cap and the dosimeter is placed into the loading bed. The handling adapter is grasped by the left hand and superimposed on the loading bed so that the pins of the handling adapter fit into the slots of the lug type cap on the loading bed. The handling adapter is shifted by a slight turn into the position marked "50."

With his eye to the microscope the operator observes on the illuminated scale the filament of the electrometer. The lever of the coupling device is depressed by the thumb of the right hand until it engages (counterclockwise). Deflection of the electrometer filament to the left is monitored through the microscope. As soon as the filament reaches the graduation marked "0" on the scale the lever of the coupling device must be loosened.

A check is made to see whether the filament actually stopped at the "0" graduation. If not, loading must be repeated.

The handling adapter is grasped by the left hand and after removal by a turn it is placed on the table.

The loaded SD 50 dosimeter is removed by the right hand from the loading bed, the left hand is used to screw onto it the closure and the dosimeter is either placed into the box or issued to the troops.

Analyzing the SD 50 dosimeter. The loading and analyzing device as well as the dosimeter are prepared the same way as for loading.

The handling adapter is put in place and set by a slight turn to the position marked "S."

After depressing the lever of the coupling device the microscope is used to monitor the movement of the electrometer filament on the illuminated scale. As soon as the filament reaches "0" the lever of the coupling device is released. The filament must stay on "0." The handling adapter is shifted by a slight turn to position "5."

The dose is read off on the electrometer scale in the range up to 5 R and is entered into the log recording irradiation of persons. If the read-off dose is in excess of 5 R (the filament on the scale up to 5 R will become deflected to the right beyond the scale), the lever of the coupling device is again depressed and the filament is again positioned on "0." The handling adapter is shifted by a slight turn to position "50."

The dose is read on the electrometer scale in the range up to 50 R and is posted in the log used for recording irradiation of persons. The handling adapter is removed. The dosimeter is taken out of the loading bed, its cap is screwed shut and the dosimeter is returned to its place in the box.

Loading of T 5 and T 50 dosimeters. The loading and analyzing device is turned by the loading bed to face the operator. The dosimeter is removed by the right hand from the box and the left hand unscrews the cap.

The T 5 (T 50) dosimeter is placed by the right hand into the loading bed and is pressed into it to lock it in. The illuminated scale of the dosimeter is scanned by eye.

The lever of the coupling device is depressed by the index finder of the left hand and movement of the filament is monitored in the scale of the dosimeter. As soon as the filament reaches "0" the lever of the coupling device is released. The filament must stop at "0." After insertion of the carrier the "Zeroing" button must be depressed. The "Zeroing" bulb will become switched off within 3 seconds. If it fails to do so, the dosimeter is defective. After the light of the "Zeroing" bulb goes off, the "Measuring" button is depressed and released (for about 5 seconds), and light in the "Zeroing" bulb comes on.

This process indicates that the measurement has taken place and the operator can read off the datum on the corresponding scale according to the indication on the subranges.

After reading and recording of the datum the instrument is set back to zero by depressing the "Zeroing" button. This cancels the deviation on the indicator instrument, the bulb of the first range becomes lit and light in the "Zeroing" bulb goes off.

Depressing the pawl in the upper part of the carrier releases the dosimeter carrier and it can be pushed out till it comes to a stop. Continued slight pulling behind the dosimeter carrier's head depresses the spring of the ejection mechanism and the dosimeter falls into the groove of the instrument's panel. The dosimeter is inserted into its casing which, after being screwed shut, is slightly tightened in the pan on the instrument's box.

The DK-70 diagnostic dosimeter is a personal dosimeter designed for the detection of ionizing gamma radiation. It cumulates radiation doses independently of their quantitative and chronological distribution and keeps track of the so-called "summary dose." The datum designating the dose is not erased in dosimeter analysis. The dosimeter can be regenerated, i.e., the accumulated dose indication can be erased by exposure to light.

The dosimeter can register doses from 0 to 1,500 R. The dosimeter with casing weighs 13 g, without casing 6 g.

The dosimeter consists of a bakelite dosimeter casing and the dosimeter proper which is formed by a black polystyrene ring with a transparent little frame made of clear, colorless polystyrene in which is suspended the actual monocrystalline detector in the shape of a square plate measuring 8x8x2 mm. It is a plate of a monocrystal of sodium chloride which becomes colored by the effects of ionizing centers whereby the color shade is commensurate to the dose.

Regeneration of the irradiated dosimeter occurs through exposure to daylight or artificial light impacting through a polystyrene pouch on the monocrystalline detector. The time required for regeneration depends on the extent of the dose received.

The position of the filament on the scale is checked for correctness after the dosimeter is taken out of the of the loading bed (scale in horizontal position, filament on "0"), the dosimeter cap is screwed shut and the dosimeter is ready for use in measurements.

Analyzing of T 5 and T 50 dosimeters. Analyzing takes the form of direct reading of the dose on the dosimeter scale by placing the dosimeter close to the eye and turning it against the light. The cap is not removed and the scale should be in horizontal position. The dosimeter is issued 1 hour after loading.

Maintenance and storage of the set. A check is done at least once a month of the completeness of accessories, the state of cells and correct functioning of the loading and analyzing device, and once every 6 months the extent of spontaneous discharge of loaded dosimeters is checked.

The set is turned over for calibration control once a year.



## 2. VDK-70 Dosimeter Analyzing Instrument

The VDK-70 dosimeter analyzing instrument is designed for analyzing DK-70 diagnostic dosimeters. It has a measuring range up to 2,000 R.

The VDK-70 dosimeter analyzing instrument set consists of:

- VDK-70 instrument,
- photoconductive standard,
- cable for 220V/50 Hz network,
- cable for 12 V or 24 V on-board power network,
- screwdriver,
- key for opening DK-70 casing,
- brush for cleaning of light guide,
- operating instructions,
- set's log,
- box for transporting set.

Its 2,000 R measuring range has three subranges:

- I. 1-25 R
- II. 20-250 R
- III. 200-2,000 R

Power is fed either from a 220 V/50 Hz a.c. network, power input 25 W, or from a d.c. on-board network of 12 V with power input of 15 W, or 24 V with 15 W power input.

Control and other elements on the panel are marked with the requisite inscriptions.

The principle of dosimeter analysis consists in pulse-measurement of the photo-conductivity of monocrystals. Pulse change in conductivity is monitored in the instrument's measuring chamber with a simultaneous pulse of light. The change in conductivity of an irradiated monocrystal is commensurate to the irradiation dose. This change is electrically analyzed and the instrument itself selects the requisite subrange. Deflection of the measuring instrument's indicator hand shows the reading in roentgens.

Preparation of the instrument for operation. After the analyzing instrument is removed from its transport wrapper the panel cover is taken down. The so-called mechanical zero of the measuring instrument is checked or set. A power feed cable is connected, depending on the power source. The switch must be at the same time in the "Vyp" [off] position. The cable is then connected to the power source.

The switch is turned on and after several seconds the "Zeroing" button is depressed. The "Zeroing" bulb's light must go off. Only the first subrange's indicator bulb is lit. Some 15 minutes after switching on the "Measuring" glow tube lights up. The switched-on instrument is left to stabilize itself.

Thereafter, with the "Zeroing" button depressed, a screwdriver is used to set the "Zeroing" potentiometer (the so-called "electric zero") on the measuring instrument. After releasing of the "Zeroing" button the indicator hand of the measuring instrument must become deflected into the green field on the scale.

With the "VN" [high tension] button depressed, the screwdriver is used to set the "VN" potentiometer to make the indicator hand cover the "VN" gradation on the scale. The "VN" potentiometer must be turned slowly, because the "VN" circuits have a high electric inertia. Setting of electric zero and high tension can be repeated one more time.

The instrument set in this manner is ready for use in measurements.

Analyzing of dosimeters. After setting and control of functioning the analysis of dosimeters can commence. After unscrewing the dosimeter casing the dosimeter itself is taken out and is inserted through a shaped conduit into the dosimeter carrier. The dosimeter must be in a position where the electrode bearing the marking "Π" faces the operator and the legs of the symbol "Π" point down. The dosimeter is lightly pressed into its carrier until it stops. By insertion of the carrier it is forwarded into the measuring chamber where the carrier mechanism takes down the lightproof ring and places the instrument's electrodes on the dosimeter electrodes.

### 3. EDOS I Military Dosimeter

The EDOS I military dosimeter is designed for operational control of irradiation of persons (individuals), i.e., for measuring the dose of ionizing gamma radiation to which the persons were exposed.

The EDOS I instrument is a self-loading dosimeter consisting of a detection cell and an electronic analyzing system. Both parts are structurally connected to a single unit, making it possible to take measurements in pockets of clothing or in a leather case on the chest.

The instrument itself consists of two parts, plastic moldings interconnected by three screws. The lower section contains all functional parts; the upper section serves at the same time as the instrument's panel, containing the measuring instrument and control elements. The control elements include the zeroing potentiometer button, which also serves as power cut-off, and buttons for measuring, sensitivity enhancement, and erasure of data. These buttons can be easily operated even in equipment for the protection of individuals against chemical agents, with the exception of the erasure button, which is protected against accidental erasure by being sunk in. The cap for the casing of the power feed element is located in the upper part of the instrument's lefthand side. The power source employed is a type 154 or 155 pencil cell.

All pushbuttons, the potentiometer axis and the lid of the power-feed casing are sealed with rubber strips, making the instrument waterproof.

The operating position of the instrument can be selected at random. In view of the employed measuring instrument, reading of data must be done in the horizontal position.

Basic technical data:

- the instrument measures in a range of 20-800 R;
- it has two subranges: 20-150 R,  
20-800 R;
- accuracy of measurements under normal climatic conditions is 20 percent;
- operating temperature is from  $-40^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $+50^{\circ}\text{C}$ ;
- the time needed for data readout, including dosimeter preparation, does not exceed 8 seconds;
- the instrument's dimensions are 72 x 112 x 41 mm;
- the instrument's overall weight is 0.36 kg.

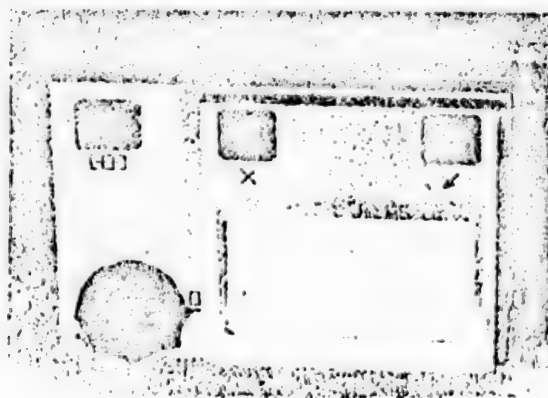


Figure 6.1 EDOS I dosimeter



Figure 6.2 EDOS I dosimeter worn in pocket of uniform



Figure 6.3 EDOS I dosimeter worn around the neck

Preparation of the instrument for operation. The EDOS I dosimeter is a self-loading unit that is always ready for operation and is even completely independent of the state of the power-feed sources. It can operate even if no power source is inserted. However, in the latter case it can only record and cumulate a dose, but does not provide readout.

The following procedure must be adhered to when readying the instrument for full operation after long storage:

- remove the instrument from its leather case;
- unscrew the lid of the power source casing;
- remove from the casing the storage element;
- insert the type 154 or 155 pencil cell and screw the lid of the power source casing shut;
- turn the instrument on by moving the dial to the right and then set the zero deflection of the measuring instrument as accurately as possible by turning left or right;
- push the measuring and sensitivity enhancement buttons, and if the dosimeter was not exposed to radiation, the indicating hand of the measuring instrument must not leave the red field. If the deflection is substantial, the datum must be erased;
- data erasure is carried out by depressing the (0) button. A pointed object (pencil, knife, etc.) must be used to depress the button. Check as in the preceding point and repeat erasure if needed;
- disconnect the instrument by dialing to the left;
- insert the instrument in its leather case.

Actual measurement. Exposure of the dosimeter to radiation (by wearing it) always occurs with the instrument switched off. The power source and electronic parts of the instrument serve exclusively for reading or for the erasure of old data.

Readout can be undertaken at any time and repeated reading does not affect the dosimeter data. To insure maximum accuracy, care must be taken so that the ambient temperature during reading is close to the temperature at which the erasure of the dosimeter was made, the difference between temperatures not to exceed  $\pm 15^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

The following procedure is followed in data readout:

- switch the instrument on by dialing to the right and set the indicator hand of the indication instrument to zero deflection by turning left and right;
- depress the button marked "↗" and wait till the deflection is stabilized; read off the dose on the upper scale;
- if the deflection is small, also depress the button marked "X" (both buttons must be kept depressed simultaneously) and take the reading on the lower scale. If the indicator hand in the latter case is in the red field, the dosimeter was not exposed to radiation (deflection in the red field is considered zero);
- turn the instrument off by turning the knob to the left.

In disconnected state the instrument continues to cumulate the dose. If an old datum must be eliminated for a new start from zero value, erasure is carried out by depressing the (θ) button.

Care of the instrument includes:

- control of the instrument's external appearance,
- control of the power source.

In external control the surface of the instrument must be checked, making sure that seals are intact, that there is no corrosion, loosened buttons or loosened lid on the power source.

Impurities must be removed in a way that will keep the instrument clean and dry. No organic solvents may be used for cleaning--weak saponate solutions in warm water are suitable. The instrument may not be opened while being taken care of.

Checking of the power source part is at the same time a check of the dosimeter's proper functioning. The dosimeter is switched on by turning the knob to the right and the hand of the indication meter is set to zero position by turning left and right. If zero deflection cannot be set, the power source must be changed. If zero deflection cannot be set even after the power source has been changed, the instrument is defective and must be sent for repair.

Since the instrument enclosure is solid, repairs cannot be made outside a repair facility, with the exception of changing the power source.

8204

CSO: 8112/0224



FORMATION, REGISTRATION OF NEW TRADE UNIONS DISCUSSED

Warsaw RZECZPOSPOLITA in Polish 1 Nov 84 p 6

[Interview with Judge Zdzislaw Koscielniak, chairman of the Warsaw Provincial Court Trade Union Registration Department, by Jolanta Woloszanska]

[Text] [Question] You have supported the registration of trade unions from the very beginning. Therefore, as a judge, your opinion on the process of development of the trade union movement is of interest. What transformations has it undergone during the past 4 years?

[Answer] One must single out two periods in the most recent history of the trade union movement. The first lasted from 13 March 1980 to 13 December 1981, from the moment when, based on a Council of State law which denoted fulfillment of the Gdansk Accords, the court began registering unions established outside the CRZZ [Central Council of Trade Unions] structure until the declaration of martial law. The 8 October 1982 trade union law initiated the second period whereby unions could begin work on 1 January 1983, and that is when we began registering the trade union organizations. The subsequent Council of State law of 12 April 1983 made it possible for suprafactory organizations to operate. That is when proposals from the entire nation began pouring into the Warsaw Provincial Court for registration of federations organizing factory organizations into trade unions, and the registration of national union organizations of a homogeneous nature. The Polish Teachers Union and the Polish Armed Forces Civilian Personnel Union were established at that time.

The Warsaw Provincial Court had registered 117 suprafactory organizations throughout the nation by 1 October 1984.

At the same time, a decentralization movement was growing during 1983 and 1984, with larger federations breaking up into smaller units.

[Question] What tendencies dominate today?

[Answer] The centralized movement is limited to a certain degree by the law which determines that national interunion organizations can begin their activity only after 31 December 1984. Centralization of the movement, in the full sense of the word, represents a problem which is just now before us.

Now that the large unions are already operational, it is natural that the smaller ones are being established. The newly established ones must squeeze themselves into the existing structure. As a result, a fight is underway in the courts between the smaller unions and the factories. This type of rivalry is currently going on between the Gdansk Fish Sales and Processing Trade Union Federation and the Cooperative Trade Union Federation with regard to the fishing cooperatives. The Cooperative Trade Union Federation is also defending itself against loss of control over the handicapped workers cooperatives, in connection with the establishment of the federation of factory trade organizations for handicapped cooperative workers. Both matters are currently under review by the Supreme Court. Yet another example is the conflict between the Agricultural Economy Federation in Debica and the Polish Agricultural Workers Federation.

[Question] What position does the court take in these matters?

[Answer] It is still difficult to talk about any distinct tendencies regarding jurisdiction. The present Provincial Court practice proceeds rather in the direction of restriction of occupational branches in which workers can establish their own trade unions in accordance with the law. All the more so since Convention No 87 on International Labor Organization, representing the basis for union freedom, proclaims that workers can join the trade union of their choice.

In the conflict between the Agricultural Economy Federation in Debica registered by the Provincial Court and the PRL Agricultural Workers Trade Union Federation, the Supreme Court rescinded the decision on registration of the Debica federation, following intensive review. But, as I said earlier, it is still too early to formulate any proposals on the basis of one case.

A separate issue concerns the charge of the break-up of the union movement connected with the registration of the small federations. But this goes well beyond the scope of the court's control. In the establishment of the federations we abide by the legal stipulation that the desire for establishment should be expressed by over one-half of the union organizations already active in a particular professional branch.

This stipulation is obligatory for the establishment of the suprafactory structure. However, if the federation membership falls below 50 percent as a result of deletion or resignation of trade unions, the federations will not lose their legal status and will not be subject to exclusion from registration. This is merely one example of the inconsistency of the law.

[Question] Since we are discussing the weaknesses of the law, how does the establishment of suprafactory union organizations in small factories, associations of higher service, and political and social organizations appear in practice? The laws do not give any specifics in these matters.

[Answer] Indeed, a serious problem has come up before the court concerning, for example, whether 10 workers in the skilled trades or the Polonia firms can establish a trade union. The Council of State law regulating the principles and methods for the establishment of national union organizations do not give a distinct explanation. In practice, in deciding these issues the court bases itself on the principle governing union freedom which is contained in the Convention on International Labor Organization.

[Question] The court's role toward the trade unions as an organ which enforces the laws does not end at the moment of union registration.

[Answer] Registration is but the end of the beginning. The court subsequently evaluates the legality of proposals concerning the registration of persons authorized to represent the union, its administration, or presidium. A protocol on the progress of election results, which is subject to inspection, must also be added to the proposals. The court's jurisdiction also includes investigation of each statutory modification from the point of view of its agreement with the law, and also with the interests of other registered union organizations. In case of conflict, we generally challenge the federations involved to define their position, and we also request the proposal proponents to attend a court session in order to clarify the disputed issues. In these situations, the court simultaneously becomes the arbiter as well as the consultative authority. However, many problems are simply a matter of ignorance of the law on the part of the union activists. Besides, they often come on their own initiative with requests for advice on everyday trade union matters.

On the one hand, this pleases us since the frequency of such contact attests to the trust placed in the court. However, on the other hand it also demonstrates the need for broadening the network of consultative points for the trade unions.

12229

CSO: 2600/138

## PREPARATIONS FOR LOCAL ELECTIONS ANNOUNCED

Warsaw ZAGADNIENIA I MATERIAŁY in Polish No 39, 27 Sep-30 Oct 84 pp 3-6

[Article by Karol Gebka: "Self-Government Elections"]

[Text] Before us is the election campaign for self-government organs for the residents of the city and the countryside. The campaign is an extension of the election to people's councils. In accordance with the regulations of the law on people's councils and territorial self-government, the period between elections to the councils and elections to residents' self-government cannot be longer than 6 months.

Before 17 December of the current year, then, the residents of the city and countryside ought to elect over 33,000 committees of housing estates and districts and over 36,000 village committees and village administrators. Over 400,000 citizens will become members of those organs. Together with the councilors, they will act in a monolithic system of territorial self-government, making sure that offices of regional administration work better and that the needs of the population are being met on the line from the authorities to the citizen,

#### What Is Residents' Self-Government To Be?

The law of 1 July 1983 gave residents' self-government broad powers. From an institution auxiliary to the regional administration, it has become its partner with executive and not only evaluative powers (as formerly), which the administration must respect by law.

Residents' self-government also exercises social control over the functioning of institutions and services which influence the conditions of life in the given housing estate or village.

Thus self-government can effectively influence nearly all matters concerning the life of the population in their places of residence. It has the right to undertake (within the framework of the socioeconomic plan of a city or gmina) resolutions equal to the resolutions of people's councils, in the following matters:

--maintenance, conservation and repairs of housing objects, the housing estate infrastructure or village social, cultural and sport facilities;

--in other matters passed over to it for resolution by the city, housing estate or gmina people's council.

In other matters, the self-government has evaluative powers, particularly with regard to the functioning of the commerce and services network, transport, health care and other matters, including the use of funds assigned for social purposes. The territorial administration is obliged to consult the opinion of the self-government in those matters. Likewise, it is obliged to consult it with regard to the draft of the socioeconomic plan of the city (housing estate) and gmina, with regard to the draft of the space management, and other drafts of resolutions of the people's council regarding a housing estate or a village.

As has already been mentioned, the self-government from an auxiliary institution has become a partner of the administration and has been equipped with legal guarantees to this purpose. The self-government resolutions in certain matters, which are binding for the administration, have been reinforced by the right of objection to the presidium of the people's council with regard to the decisions of the administration violating the rights of the self-government. Moreover, the self-government has the right to participate in the administrative procedure that results in an administrative decision regarding a housing estate or village.

Possible disputes between the residents' self-government and, for example, the administrator of a city or gmina, or a head of the city council, will be examined by the presidium of the council and resolved in the presence of the representatives of the self-government, by the session of the council.

The organs of self-government, in the form of housing committees, district, housing settlement and village committees, are general meetings of residents, or conferences of delegates, which have executive rights or have been elected by meetings of executive rungs.

Only residents' meetings or the above-mentioned conferences can make decisions in matters basic for the residents, and their realization is to be undertaken by committees and village councils.

Apart from committees in cities, and village councils in the countryside, residents' meetings can call into being other executive organs, such as assemblies, commissions, or committees, for the realization of the following tasks:

--providing the residents' participation in the examination of social and living-conditions issues, health care, and others, connected with the place of residence;

--organizing the mutual aid of residents and joint work on behalf of the place of residence.



The new rights with which the law has equipped the residents' self-government give it the possibility of really becoming the manager of its housing estate or village.

#### What Will the Course of the Election Be?

The election to the residents' self-government organs is announced and organized by people's councils appropriate to the housing estate, city or gmina. This election also has a different organizational formula than the election to people's councils.

The document regulating the preparation and course of the campaign is "Recommendations regarding the elections to the organs of residents' self-government by The Council of State's Commission on People's Councils." These recommendations play the role of the electoral law, but the decisions regarding the form and organization of the election are left to people's councils, and the included schedule of activities is nothing else but an election calendar.

For the purposes of running the election efficiently, the presidia of people's councils also created coordinating assemblies, which are to include representatives of the following organizations: the PZPR, ZSL, SD, activists of the PRON, trade unions, some social, cooperative and self-government organizations (particularly housing cooperatives, farming circles, and worker self-government), and councilors.

In accordance with the "Recommendations," election meetings ought to be preceded by pre-election meetings, at which the evaluation of the past activity of the residents' self-government committees and the realization of motions and issues submitted during the election campaign will be carried out. These meetings also should be an occasion for a preparation of drafts of the program of action of the self-government, which ought to contain the most vital issues of the local communities. These programs should also contain--from the programs of election to people's councils--the issues and problems referring to the given housing estates or villages.

Appropriate solutions concerning the elections themselves contain model statutes of the self-government of housing estates of villages which were prepared and accepted by the Council of State.

According to them, the meetings ought to be chaired by members of the presidium of the people's council or by local councilors. In large cities it is anticipated that the meetings should be chaired by known self-government activists. A draft of the order of a general election meeting is included in the statutes:

--the resolution of a statute which will define the tasks of the self-government and its organizational structure, management of the funds, the principles of making reports from the committee's activity to the residents, establishment of the minimum presence required at the meetings for their resolutions to be legally valid, and other organizational matters;

--acquainting the participants of the meeting with the draft of the program of activity of the self-government;

--elections and procedural actions connected with them.

The participants of the meetings will decide themselves whether the election ought to be secret or open.

According to the "Recommendations" of the State Council, the election meetings of village residents are legally valid if at the first appointed time, one-fifth of the village residents are present. If the number present is smaller, on the same day after a half hour from the appointed time, the election is to take place regardless of the number of participants.

The same regulations concern meetings organized in the city, with the exception of conferences of delegates, where for the election to be legally valid half of the delegates should be present.

The recommendations anticipate that within a month from the election, the powers of the self-government committees of the residents of the cities and village councils will be formed.

#### The Party and the Election

The current elections to the residential self-government organs will be for the party not only one more test of its organizational efficiency, but at the same time a test of its credibility. In the course of the campaign for people's councils, the party made a promise to the voters that it will make all efforts to bring to realization that which was written down in the new law. Voting in the self-government election, one must be aware of that. Therefore, the party, its echelons and organizations must make all the effort to assure that people's councils and the territorial organs of state administration take care that all the problems submitted during the election campaign to the councils and which trouble the residents of the housing estate or village be solved promptly, if they can be solved, and those matters which cannot be solved be discussed and explained at meetings with residents.

PZPR committees ought to inspire and concentrate the realization of those tasks through party councilors and PZPR members working in the territorial rungs of state administration. This also places on city, housing estate, city-gmina, and gmina committees the obligation to be alert and remove obstacles hampering the realization of obligations made toward the residents.

In accordance with the decisions, the political leadership of the entirety of the election campaign to residents' self-government organs rests on the provincial committees of the PZPR, and on the basic level, on the city, housing estate, city-gmina, and gmina committees, through the intermediary of party members acting in coordinating committees and organized in aktiv groups in residents' self-government organs, cooperative, women's, youth, and social organizations, and councilors.

Their basic task is to undertake such program and organizational undertakings which will create the proper climate and social atmosphere around the elections, assure a constructive course of the election meetings, and bring about the resolution of the correct statutes and programs of actions of the self-government.

The most important issue, however, is to appoint such candidates who guarantee a good realization of the tasks resulting from social needs. There ought to be people in the committees, therefore, who have authority in their communities. Those people should be approached who gained the support of voters and ran in the elections to people's councils as secondary candidates, and people who did not run, but gained acceptance at pre-election consulting meetings. Their participation in self-government work ought to assure its active and proper functioning.

It is known, after all, and there is no need to hide it, that the lack of influence and ineffectiveness of action of the residents' self-government was a factor hampering the development of social activity in places of residence. The statute on people's councils and territorial self-government changes this situation and removes the obstacles, but people will decide to what extent it will be used in daily practice. The chance which residents' self-government offers for the development of socialist democracy cannot be wasted.

The problem of the effectiveness of action of residential self-government and of village councils, from the day of their election, acquires a new dimension. Therefore, territorial party organizations and the POP aktiv in the countryside must create a favorable atmosphere around these organs not only during the election period, but throughout their whole term of office.

Such was the stand taken by the Commission on Representative Organs and Self-Government of the Central Committee of the PZPR, which acquainted itself with the state of preparation for the election to the organs of self-government of the residents of the city and the countryside. In the opinion of the commission, not only territorial party organizations in the cities and POP aktiv in the countryside ought to be obliged to increase their activity during the election campaign, but all PZPR members must create a proper climate and social atmosphere around these elections.

The election campaign to the organs of residents' self-government will be inaugurated in the middle of October by special sessions of people's councils at the basic level. People's councils will define which matters within their competence are to be passed over for the examination and resolution by the organs of residential self-government and will establish the dates of election meetings and carry out--if need be--a new territorial division of cities into housing estates and gminas into village administrative units [solectwa]. The State Council Commission on People's Councils recommends, however, a careful approach to boundary changes and new territorial divisions, so as not to evoke conflicts and strong emotions among residents and thus divert their attention from the election.

12270

CSC: 2600/183

## DLUGOSZ ON DRIVE TO REDUCE TRADE DEPENDENCE ON WEST

Warsaw GOSPODARKA PLANOWA in Polish No 6, Jun 84 pp 258-265

[Article by Stanislaw Dlugosz, deputy chairman of the Planning Commission: "The Role of Foreign Trade in Poland's International Economic Relations Strategy in the 1980's"]

[Excerpts] Decreased Dependence on the West

This matter was on the agenda on the 37th CEMA Session. The meeting formulated the following position: "We stress the intensification of mutually advantageous economic cooperation within the CEMA framework for accelerated production development and reciprocal deliveries of goods, whose import is made more difficult by the discriminatory policies of certain capitalist nations concerning economic and trade relations with CEMA nations."

In Poland work is actively being pursued in this area. The work is aimed at structural intensification and closer cooperation with the socialist nations for a reasonable reduction of dependence on imports from the West. We can mention numerous specific examples concerning the form as well as the content of these tasks:

--utilization of available production capacity of Polish industry, especially in 1982, thanks to major above-quota raw material deliveries (cotton, rubber, hides, etc.) from the Soviet Union. This not only enabled us to maintain production continuity in the manufacturing sector, but also allowed us to redirect a significant portion of finished goods to the Polish market;

--activities allowing for cooperative or raw material import substitution from the capitalist countries through increased cooperation, especially with the Soviet Union, in such areas as the paint and lacquer industry, shipbuilding, truck, and the advanced communications industry.

In all the branches mentioned, Polish industry was formerly dependent upon imports from the capitalist nations. Another form of cooperation is socialist participation in the completion of investment undertakings



begun in the past in Poland. Our economy is incapable of financing the continuation of the projects with our own resources. We can give three examples dealing with the enormous quality problems faced:

--Soviet participation in the completion of metallurgical facilities, coke ovens, thermal treatment of rails, or production of ductile profiles. Poland received favorable credit terms to finance these projects, with the credit to be repaid through deliveries of goods from the plants. The profits over and above the servicing of the debt will be used to pay for additional imports of natural gas from the Soviet Union. This agreement was signed in November 1983;

--a Polish-Czechoslovak agreement on cooperation in initiating production of light bulbs in Poland signed on 21 April 1983, utilizing machinery and equipment previously purchased from Japan. The agreement foresees deliveries of additional machinery and equipment, market goods, as well as essential hard currency funds from Czechoslovakia. In return Poland will supply Czechoslovakia with light bulbs;

--an agreement concerning cooperation in the manufacture of picture tubes for color television sets. We were able to manufacture more modern picture tubes, including production for export, thanks to hard currency funds obtained from Hungary. Some will be exported to Hungary to repay the debt.

In reality, the above-mentioned projects are only temporary. They were intensified as a result of the 37th CEMA Session through cooperation in industry and foreign trade among the socialist nations in efforts to find substitutes for imports from the West.

On the other hand, the search within the scope of work on the coordination of economic plans for the years 1986-1990 for permanent opportunities for import substitution through the implementation of specific research and development processes is being recognized as structural activity. Subsequently, we must undertake joint investment projects.

To illustrate these activities, we can mention other examples, namely:

--the agreement concluded in November 1983 between the Polish Ministry of Agriculture and Food Economy and the Czechoslovak Federal Ministry of Agriculture, which not only established the areas of current cooperation and exchange of goods, but also defined 14 areas for scientific and license cooperation, including the meat, confectionary, potato, herb industries, etc.;

--the Polish-Hungarian agreement governing cooperation on bus production signed in October 1983. It represents economic and technologically effective partial substitution of cooperation in the bus production industry;

--specialized cooperation based on the activation of a barter trade of varied products, which is being developed between the Polish metallurgical industry and the industries of other socialist nations. Countertrade is growing in the nonferrous metals industry; for example, copper is being bartered for aluminum (from Romania), or copper for aluminum oxide (from Hungary).

There is closer specialized cooperation between the pharmaceutical industry and the enterprises manufacturing pesticides and veterinary drugs.

Studies are currently being carried out on the possibility for closer cooperation in the area of agricultural tractors (cooperation existed with a Canadian-British firm until recently), equipment for the milk, food, and catering industries (at one time, equipment was purchased from Scandinavia and Italy), and electronic telephone switching equipment (previous cooperation with French manufacturers). These only represent a few examples. Other areas designated for objective reasons for development or closer cooperation within the socialist cooperation framework include:

- machinery and equipment for the extractive and energy industries,
- machinery and equipment for agriculture and for food processing industries,
- the shipbuilding industry,
- the household appliance industry.

Work is also continuing on the development of closer forms of cooperation, such as direct cooperation among the large manufacturers in the socialist countries, and the establishment of joint production companies or joint research and development facilities.

Socialist cooperation is currently seeking (remembering that its members also include such tropical countries as Cuba and Vietnam) opportunities for increased production of such goods as natural rubber, soy beans, peanuts, coffee, and tea, which until recently had to be imported largely from countries outside the bloc.

Therefore, it can be determined that very definite activities designed to decrease dependence on imports from the West have already been noted in the socialist integration process, and are being undertaken by all the socialist nations. It is worthwhile to note that these tasks do not cause a decline of interest in or readiness for development of cooperation with Third World nations. Nor can they be interpreted as a refusal by the socialist countries to develop partnerships and equal cooperation with those developed capitalist countries which would basically respect the principles of the Helsinki Final Accords, violated by the United States and some other NATO countries following the 13 December 1983 events.

Decreased Polish dependence on imports from the West can be characterized by demonstrating the changes in Poland's foreign trade sales structure in the years 1980-1984.

	1980	1983	1984*
Imports from socialist nations	100	118.3	130.4
Imports from capitalist nations	100	48.8	51.6

#### \*Central Annual Plan

There is still another intermediate measure, convincing yet difficult to quantify. An even more clearly formulated apprehension is appearing from the West (for example, THE FINANCIAL TIMES of 13 January 1984, or THE OBSERVER of 29 January 1984) and through mercenary Polish language editions. The apprehension or the processes concerning dependence on the West will not lead to a situation where the West will have little to offer to Poland and the socialist bloc.

#### New Integration Mechanisms

Methods for the development of economic cooperation among the socialist nations depend, among other things, on a multilevel coordination of socioeconomic plans.

These matters are well-known from the point of view of advantages and disadvantages, as well as methods and ways for improvement. It is therefore worthwhile to note certain new concepts and proposals for solution which should assist in increasing the dynamics and the development of the scope of cooperation through improvement of the integration mechanisms (bi- and multilateral).

In the first place, it is necessary to mention cooperation in global matters, joint solution of problems upon which the progress of the entire partnership is dependent, such as:

- obtaining raw materials and fuel,
- initiation of scientific and technological advancement,
- conservative management of all types of resources,
- providing the population with food.

A second area discussed by the 37th CEMA Session (Budapest 1982) concerned the dissemination of the coordination of long-term plans for economic policy and scientific and technological policy issues, as well as investment issues in important fields and even projects.

In discussing the methods for closer socialist bloc cooperation it is necessary to stress that the socialist nations continue to seek out methods for improvement in the planning and management of the national economy. Among the planning instruments, those universally applied or well known and those which do not need clarification, the following can be mentioned:

--decisions of the CEMA Session, CEMA Executive Committee, and a series of CEMA topical committees;

--coordination of long-term plans among CEMA members;

--long-term trade and payment agreements together with annually fulfilled trade protocols;

--bilateral and multilateral long-term specialized and cooperative agreements;

--long-term and expedient cooperation programs developed within the CEMA framework;

--scientific and technical cooperation programs; it would be worthwhile to note two new instruments for planned development of socialist economic cooperation, such as:

- a) direct cooperation between large manufacturing firms,
- b) long-term cooperation programs which designate the chief prospective themes for scientific and technical cooperation.

Direct cooperation by the manufacturing firms in various fields serves to activate research and development, rationalize technological processes (intrabranh cooperation and specialization), as well as serving as a future method for conducting market and service activities. An important result of this type of cooperation is the joint solution of economic and social problems governing the integration of workers from many nations.

To a certain degree, long-term cooperation programs represent a new instrument of inspiration and coordination of bilateral development of economic cooperation in various fields, in science and technology, industry, agriculture, transportation, etc.

On 4 May 1984, Poland and the Soviet Union signed a long-term economic and scientific and technical cooperation development program until the year 2000. This agreement represents a document with strategic meaning for new international economic development cooperation concepts.

In reporting the April Warsaw visit of the Bulgarian leader Zhivkov and the February 1984 discussions between the leading Polish and Hungarian central planning organs, the Polish press emphasized the analogous nature of the programs.

These are documents of an open nature, that is, they can be disseminated or modified upon agreement by all sides concerned. They contain a list of specific economic topics, in whose bilateral solution the signatories are interested. The programs have been established following exhaustive studies and consultations with the manufacturing,

scientific, and administrative centers concerned. Their chief characteristic feature is the realistic cataloging of the interests and opportunities of all sides involved. The long-term programs fulfill the following chief functions:

- organizing cooperation in a planned manner in specific sectors of the economy, at the same time establishing priority of interests;
- linking topics of economic cooperation with topics of scientific research and development cooperation, endowing research work with the characteristics of practical inquiries, at the same time allowing for optimization of inputs;
- defining topics whose development is of concern to all sides within the context of tasks designed to decrease dependence on imports (principally technical dependence) from developed capitalist nations;
- designating fields in which the signatories are jointly interested in achieving a definite technological advancement or a better standard of living.

The programs also represent one of the principal conditions for work on the coordination of long-term plans. Long-term plans assume specific procedures for their accomplishment by the central institutions, institutes, and enterprises concerned. A systematic inspection plan for their fulfillment has been entrusted to the intragovernment committees for economic cooperation matters.

The activities undertaken in Poland's relations with the socialist bloc, a survey of opportunities for their multilateral development, instruments and mechanisms to stimulate cooperation, and finally objective internal conditioning, have been presented above. All this points in favor of the fact that the economic reorientation process and closer bilateral and multilateral relations with socialist nations represent a reasonable option for many years to come, and are not a result of our strategy of maneuvering of economic relations with other nations.

A principle part of the battle over exports is in fact being played out in the area of our relations with the socialist bloc.

In conclusion, it is worthwhile to present or rather to remember yet another general thesis: the more intensive Poland's participation in the socialist bloc, the stronger its position in relations with the developed capitalist nations.

12229  
CSO: 2600/164





The widespread public opinion suffers from the delusion that the church press has more willing readers than all other gazettes and newspapers, since it contains more believable information. This is said, for example, about the "This Week" column in TYGODNIK POWSZECHNY. A closer look at this column shows that it contains the same information as other Polish newspapers. The whole matter amounts to what is called "journalistic cuisine", in other words, a selection and arrangement of news that allows the reader conjecture on what has been left out and which most often does not exist at all. This is unquestionably a high form of the journalist's art. This is a classic example of the reader manipulation referred to in the "pastoral instructions".

How else can one interpret such an "innocent" set of news items which are pro forma separated from one another by an "oily period": one of them speaks about the damage to a Soviet oil tanker caused by a mine at the Nicaraguan port of Puerto Sandino and the Soviet government's note of protest accusing the United States of responsibility for the incident while another reports "the arrival in Cuba of Soviet warships". On reading something of this type, the reader might go out at once to buy some sugar and flour "just in case". After all, ration cards now stand as a barrier against "panic buying". It is a matter of convincing the reader: I would bet my own head that this information comes from "reliable" western sources, that the "regime press" sedulously hides this from the public and that it is only the TYGODNIK POWSZECHNY that has the courage to print this news, etc.

Some have said that manipulation or nonmanipulation are more important than the fact that "they" publish what the public wants to read and without the annoyance of propaganda and that they do not have to push their papers into anyone's hands. Was it really that way? This is contradicted by the supplement to the "Pastoral instructions", the "Instructions on the matter of the public media and the public media Sundays in the parish". This speaks another language. Therefore, propaganda is demanded "among the loyal readership of the church and Catholic press" and that care be taken that the press has a wide selection "with regard to all levels of the readership and especially the needs of the faithful of a given parish". The "Instructions" recommend that each parish and its libraries as often as possible contain a reading room "in which there may be found all church and Catholic publications" with additional that they be "accepted by the church authorities" (!). Is this a return to the "index librorum prohibitorum"?

The "Instructions" are specific and strict even though the "Pastoral instructions to the faithful" take a somewhat different tone of voice. It is said there that the public mass media should "shape a tolerant attitude toward other cultural and creative trends", that it should "be an example of tolerance" and that "the creative mingling of different views is necessary". It can even be said that these suggestions can be found through dialogue and agreement. The conclusion to this document is very unambiguous, however: "It has become customary that not only adults but also children and young people watch television or listen to radio at all hours of the day. The church should make parents aware of this problem since there are not only programs that are controversial from a religious point of view but also others that are definitely harmful to morals and ethics". What right is this that the church has taken upon itself? Has the seal of "imprimatur" come back into our lives? This is unreal!

KRASINSKI QUIZZED ON OUTLOOK FOR MORE PRICE HIKES

Warsaw RZECZPOSPOLITA in Polish 24 Oct 84 p 3

[Interview with Minister of Price Affairs Zdzislaw Krasinski: "Questions for the Minister"]

[Text] It's more expensive--there isn't any! Why do industrial products continually become more expensive instead of becoming cheaper? There are only increases and increases.... Contract prices--who contracts with whom, since after all industry dictates the conditions and trade does not protect us very well....

These are only some of the problems and questions that came from the readers of RZECZPOSPOLITA for Prof Zdzislaw Krasinski, the minister of price affairs. Some of the questions were answered by department directors in the Price Office, but we used the ones repeated most often in a conversation with Prof Zdzislaw Krasinski. Here are the contents of it.

[Question] People say that when you headed a department in Poland, Professor, there was a more rapid increase in our economist personnel, and that on the other hand, when you began to direct the Price Ministry, prices definitely rose faster for us.... This is an observation by many readers... for a good beginning for our conversation. But now here is a concrete question: there is no way to separate price policy and wage policy. Consequently, what do you think about the existence of two separate ministries, with one raising prices and the other lagging a little behind with wages?

[Answer] Under normal conditions prices should not interfere with wages too much. The separation of the two ministries is therefore justified for the sake of an efficient division of labor. But this question from the readers was not taken out of... perverseness, since the fact is that prices have also been incorporated into wage policy as an emergency and transitional instrument. We felt this in particular in 1982, when it was necessary--precisely by means of prices--to "remove" from the market part of the incomes that resulted from wages growing much more rapidly than prices in the years from 1978 to 1981.

This significant increase led to further associations, and so it is thought that now an attempt is being made to catch up to prices through wages, but this seems to be definitely too slow.

[Question] And what is it really like?

[Answer] I have always asserted, and I still assert, that there are no permanent links between these two elements, and so the thesis that wages are chasing prices is not true. I'll prove that at once.... This year--the data are for the past 9 months--the monetary incomes of the population grew by 20 percent, while production grew by 5 percent. Prices consequently had to increase; they only grew by 14 percent, however.

To sum up--when there is an increase in productivity and production, the link between wages and prices becomes weaker and weaker.

[Question] The prevailing opinion is that there are high prices in Poland.

[Answer] Those among RZECZSPOLITA's readers who have had an opportunity to travel abroad this year will surely not contradict the statement that the same or similar articles can be purchased here more cheaply than in Czechoslovakia, Hungary, or Bulgaria.

[Question] Some of them travel even further... and they say that although it is very expensive in the capitalist countries, it is possible to buy more of these expensive products for one's wages than in Poland.

[Answer] True. However, the secret is not in the wages, but in the productivity of labor. If it is three times higher, then it is possible to buy three times more for one's wages.

[Question] Industrial products were supposed to become cheaper in relation to food. They are becoming more expensive, however. One of the readers thinks that the purchase of an automobile has receded into infinity for many people. Why is this happening?

[Answer] I cannot agree with that. In recent years the indicator of the growth of prices for food products has been considerably higher than for industrial ones. Maybe I am citing a rarely used argument, but before 1982 even the industrial products most widely used, like clothing and footwear, were burdened with a very high turnover tax, 50 percent or more. Today a 10 percent tax applies to these products. Thus they must be relatively cheaper, which does not mean that they are not becoming more expensive.

And with respect to automobiles, this question and the accusation that the purchase of an automobile has receded into infinity are actually very frequent. I recall that in 1974 the slogan of an automobile for everyone was launched. The price was set at the level of 69,000 zlotys. With the average wage a little more than 3,000 at that time, it was necessary to set aside 21 salaries for a compact car and people somehow aimed at this purchase. Most of us considered this purchase a realistic one. Today, when an automobile costs

310,000 zlotys, and the average wage is about 17,000 zlotys, 18 salaries are enough for this purchase. And it is being said that the purchase is receding into infinity....

[Question] In the "Directions in Reforming the Economy" adopted by the Ninth Congress of the PZPR, it is stated the prices are in principle an external parameter for an enterprise. Meanwhile, they are based on the costs of production. The formula of justified costs is also ineffective. In practice, every cost is a justified cost.... When will we return to respecting the principles that the reform was based on?

[Answer] In order to be able to realize fully the principles of the economic reform without modifications, restrictions, prohibitions, and orders being needed, it is necessary to have a general economic equilibrium and market equilibrium.

The category of justified costs and unjustified costs is not an economic category, but a psychological one. At one time I accidentally witnessed a conversation conducted by a foreign buyer at one of the clothing factories in Poland. The director of the factory showed him the calculations and said, "You can see here that our costs are justified, and that is why I want such a price and not a different one." The businessman replied to this, "You see, in another country I have a producer who claims that his workers travel a great deal by limousine services, stay in luxury hotels, and thus incur unjustified costs. But he offers me the goods at a lower price. Perhaps in general his costs are lower, I therefore view his extravagance with tolerance. On the other hand, I will not take the goods from you at that price, even though you have only justified costs, because they are too expensive."

A reduction should thus be sought primarily in justified costs, since unjustified ones constitute a minimal portion.

If equilibrium conditions arise and the goods are always available everywhere, if there is competition, then our domestic contracting parties will also not be interested in justified or unjustified costs. No one will convince anyone that he has to buy at such a price when the producer is incurring high costs. The customer will simply give up on such a producer.

[Question] Is it possible to use price policy to bring about a reduction in costs?

[Answer] Only to a small extent. Next year we will institute a rule that in the case of a high external price of raw materials, the producer will not be able to include all of it in the price, but rather 3 percent less.

[Question] I also think that prices have a small effect on quality improvement. Why?

[Answer] Goods with a quality mark can be sold at a higher price. The producers know this and want to make use of this chance more and more often. Among others, dairy producers have made use of this, met really very strict



quality requirements, and brought delicatessen butter to the market. And as it turned out, this delicacy was only accepted in a few large cities. For example, 2 tons of delicatessen butter are sold every day in Warsaw, but only 300 kilograms in Poznan.

Social pressure to raise quality is enormous; however, when it is necessary to bear the economic consequences of activities guaranteeing high quality, opinions and behavior vary.

[Question] Minister Krasinski, many of the readers ask why you are indifferent to trade, which is not negotiating with industry, since it benefits more from selling more expensive products.

[Answer] I would say that I am at least frowning on it. Trade has already become convinced that people will not buy everything at any price. It is now repricing products, not out of the goodness of its heart, but rather from necessity. But we should not expect the minister of trade or the minister of prices to make everything easier for us.

Consumers have to calculate for themselves, and they should not accept excessively high prices. How many of us bargain in the market today? We pay as much as the seller wants from us. But is this only in the market? I often receive letters from tenants of cooperative units saying that the rent set for them is too high. But none of those complaining attended the self-government meeting or asked why the rent had been raised. I would not ask that he be shown what his monthly payments are going for, but possibly for heat, which escapes through broken windowpanes.

It is necessary to bargain and negotiate everywhere, or even to boycott excessively expensive goods. They will become cheaper.

[Question] There is a very long list of luxury goods, which are burdened with a very high turnover tax and are thus excessively expensive. Why? Is a washing machine a luxury?

[Answer] I do not agree with this accusation. Only seven products, including crystal, furs, and hunting weapons, have been considered luxury items.

It is incorrect to link the high tax to the concept of a luxury item. The highest tax is for vodka and cigarettes. Those are no luxuries. It is a question of limiting the consumption of these products for health and social reasons.

[Question] But washing machines are also burdened with a very high turnover tax?!

[Answer] Only some of them.... This applies to 20,000 small washing machines. The rest are sold with a low tax.

[Question] The readers would not forgive us if we neglected to ask you the reason for the recent "egg crisis," for example in Warsaw.

[Answer] Egg prices are contracted ones. Today they are no higher than in the analogous period last year, or even 2 years ago. Such feelings can occur, though, since there was a period this year when eggs were very cheap (8 zlotys).

In two large urban regions there was unnecessary interference with the contract price, and it was decreed that the price of eggs would not exceed 14.50 zlotys. But the state producers began to pass over these regions and private producers began to make a lot of money. They sold eggs for 23 zlotys. In other areas where there was no interference from the office in the contract price, it was at the level of 16 zlotys.

Finally, the prices are now highest (17.50 zlotys) in these two urban regions, which for a few days enjoyed a low price, and a shortage of eggs.

[Question] As we know, the increase in prices planned for last year was exceeded. What is awaiting us this year? And the next?

[Answer] The [planned] incomes of the population were also exceeded last year, and thus prices had to perform in addition their emergency role--taking away part of the incomes that were growing too quickly.

Table: How are prices increasing in 1984? (Index of commodity prices and consumer services)

	I 1984 r.	II 1984 r.	III 1984 r.	IV 1984 r.	V 1984 r.	VI 1984 r.	VII 1984 r.	VIII 1984 r.
	indeks poprzedni = 100 (1)							
OGÓŁEM (2)	100,9	103,9	101,2	101,9	101,1	100,7	100,8	99,3
artykuły żywnościowe (3)	100,7	110,4	102,1	101,9	101,2	101,3	100,9	95,1
alkohol (4)	101,3	109,2	103,6	100,9	100,7	100,3	100,0	100,0
artykuły nielywnościowe (5)	100,8	100,3	100,8	102,2	100,9	100,3	100,4	100,2
usługi (6)	101,6	100,7	100,7	103,5	101,5	100,4	100,8	100,8

Tabela jest bardzo przejrzysta więc ograniczamy się tylko do przypomnienia iż wzrost wskaźnika w lutym spowodowany był podwyżką cen niektórych artykułów żywnościowych. (7)

Key:

- 1) previous month = 100
- 2) overall
- 3) food products
- 4) alcohol
- 5) non-food products
- 6) services
- 7) The table is very clear, and so we are limiting ourselves to observing that the increase in the index in February was caused by an increase in the prices of some food products.

This year--as I have already stated--the increase in incomes is more rapid than planned, but the growth of production is also more rapid than planned. Thus prices are only partially neutralizing the increase in incomes. They reflect, however, above all the costs of production, which are always too high.

Next year? I would like it to be the same way.

[Question] You have been heading the Price Ministry for 3 years now. Reflection number one?

[Answer] At the beginning the office, like a fire department, had to extinguish the excessive incomes that were not linked to an increase in production. On the other hand, I am now interested in how to use prices to stimulate production, and how to lower costs.

I am glad that price policy is beginning to have an effect on the food industry, for example, the growing deliveries of rape and wheat.

The range of interests in 1982 is thus becoming history, thanks to the increase in the productivity of labor....

9909

CSO: 2600/156

## NATURE OF FORCES RESISTING ECONOMIC REFORM DEBATED

## ZYCIE WARSZAWY Commentary

Warsaw ZYCIE WARSZAWY in Polish 17 Oct 84 p 3

[Article by Wieslaw Szyndler-Glowacki: "Discussion of the Economy: Who Is for the Reform"]

[Text] In theory apparently everyone is for economic reform leading to independence and self-financing of enterprises, compensating workers according to productivity and stabilizing prices and the market situation. But when the chips are down and specific changes must be made to serve those purposes, then so many doubts and objections are raised and so much resistance becomes apparent that the practical implementation of reform remains in question.

This can be seen even in the example of increasing the independence of enterprises in matters of production, investment, organization, employment, wages, etc., about which central authorities and specific orders coming "from above" had preliminarily decided. Decentralization of these authorities is supposed to promote better management of resources of the enterprises, to free workers' initiative and improve productivity in general, but it developed that in practice, independence does not always serve purposes such as these, which would be useful for the country.

In the crisis situation of great shortages, when even poor quality and expensive products are sought after, many producers have begun to increase their profits not by increasing production or by decreasing costs, but by increasing prices in which various unfounded expenses and excessive profit have been included. It is not surprising that people protested against such independence and that it had to be severely limited in this area.

Moreover, severe shortages of supplies made it necessary to ensure priority of supply for certain particularly important sectors of production. This also requires central control contradictory to the reform movement.

All of this favors the large apparatus of ministries and unions (renamed associations) more interested in compromising independence of enterprises and maintaining control of the greatest range of decision-making. This makes it possible to push aside the threat that effective implementation of the reform posed to the existence of this apparatus in its extended form.

Also, the enterprises themselves, especially their directors, contrary to appearances, frequently are not eager to obtain greater independence. Certainly it is much easier to be a director who only carries out orders from above and is able to pass the whole responsibility on to higher authorities than to be a director who must be in charge himself, make decisions on everything and be responsible for everything. Independent enterprises would require different management personnel than the personnel that was formed during the last 40 years and which would prefer to remain with the old methods.

Self-financing of enterprises meets especially strong resistance, particularly the principle of the state's not making payments in full to those enterprises that work poorly and experience unjustified losses. Failure of such enterprises and the temporary employment disruptions of their workforces, would together constitute a real shocking cure for our economy. But in a society accustomed to the protective role of the government, this awakens strong opposition even in the case of the most poorly operated plants so that at this point there seems to be no practical possibility of imposing such a cure.

Similarly difficult is the implementation of the principle of compensating workers according to the results of their work. In general, there is an agreement in this respect that those should be paid more whose efforts are most productive, but in this case there would have to be radical cuts in wages for less efficient work. This, of course, runs into opposition from that part of the working world accustomed to the principle, "Whether one works or rests, one is always entitled to the basic wage."

All of this leads to the conclusion that in our society there seems to exist a peculiar immunological barrier that turns aside attempts at deeper economic reform. The rub is in that there is no way to escape from such a reform. It is true that the last year made it possible for our economy to "shove off from the bottom," which substantially improved the situation, but in the long run, it continues to be very difficult (if only because of a coinciding of many sectors of the infrastructure and of production which have no reason to be remodeled and developed). The only remedy is a radical improvement in the efficiency of the whole economy by a deep reform which we must introduce despite doubts, objections and resistance on the part of many people.

What is to be done to convince them of the seriousness of the situation, to increase the number of real supporters of the reform and more effectively overcome opposition? These are matters which every thinking Pole must consider today.



## Reader Reply

Warsaw ZYCIE WARSZAWY in Polish 6 Nov 84 p 3

[Letter by Docent Dr Julian Gordon: "Who Is Against the Reform?"]

[Text] To the Editor: W. Szyndler-Glowacki in an article entitled, "Who Is for the Reform" (ZYCIE WARSZAWY, 17 October) concisely and accurately explained the sources of departures from the basic principles of economic reform, particularly the limitation of the scope of enterprise independence. In a situation of crisis, a situation of economic unbalance, and especially money--market unbalance, production enterprises can take advantage of the increased rights to increase prices unjustifiably. Freedom to compete for raw materials and supplies in short supply might, under these circumstances, lead to a situation where the "strong" would receive them first, and not those whose production is especially important for the national economy. Thus, although with a heavy heart, the government had to take the course of imposing certain limitations on the initial significantly increased independence of enterprises, to increase control over computation of prices, introduce a distributive system for certain raw materials and supplies and semi-manufactured goods, etc. All enterprises must reconcile themselves to this.

Certain reservations are suggested, however, by the author's explanation of the sources of some departures from a second basic principle of economic reform, specifically self-financing of enterprises. He rightly says that the government's not making payments in full to plants that work poorly and suffer unjustified losses is fully justified. Failure of such enterprises could constitute a shocking cure, and one that is desirable, for the whole economy. So why is this not done despite a recent resolution of the Sejm in this matter? It is the opinion of the author that the reason is that "in a society accustomed to the protective role of the government, this awakens strong opposition even in the case of the most poorly operated plants." The question arises: what kind of society are we talking about here? Certainly a significant part of it is comprised of workers of relatively good, intensely and productively operating enterprises. It is just they who earn this national income by which the whole country is supported. And from this income, at their cost actually, a part is taken and directed toward additional payments to plants that are operating poorly. Are these efficiently operated plants going to oppose cancellation of allowances to plants that suffer unjustified losses which would make them correct and improve their work and increase the national income in this way? That would be incredible.

The author is right in indicating that if we want to pay more for good work, then we must pay less for bad work. A one-directional movement of wages, only up, regardless of productivity and efficiency of work, would lead inevitably to a situation where demands would increase faster than production of goods, which would create an accelerating force for inflation. But surprising is the idea of the author that balancing wages with respect to expenditures and effects of work will be difficult to realize since those hurt by this object to it. It is obvious that such a necessary reform of the wage

system is not easy to carry out. It is much easier to print money and give wage increases to everyone. But what will this lead to? As recent experience has shown, only to so-called suspended inflation (empty stores) or open inflation which may consume the wage increases gained by the increases in prices (depreciation in savings!).

The question arises, therefore, why are these proper and justified conclusions aimed at increasing the efficiency of enterprise work not applied? Is it not a democracy of the people rather than a democracy of the upper classes that we are bound by? After 20 years is the basic right, unwritten, but observed, again the right of *liberum veto*? And so a lazy worker can be fired only when he cordially agrees to this. A worker who produces poor work can be deprived of his pension for clearly bungled products, despite adequate regulations, only when he does not object. A worker who comes to work intoxicated or drinks while working can be punished only when it is proven that he does not have a family and did not have a deprived childhood. An incompetent director can be removed from his post only if he is given a better position or at least an equal position.

Of course, this second Poland constitutes a minority of society, but it can be seen, can be heard, and sometimes its erroneous opinions are treated as the opinions of all of society. It is sure of itself and impudent. The saying, "Whether one lies down or stands, the authorities pay because they are afraid," is its creation. Is it not time to give the lie to this? Is it not time for the people of the first Poland, being the salt of our land, in difficult, arduous and resourceful work that is extricating the country from the economic ditch in which it found itself, to raise their voices and give expression to the true opinion of the people and, what is most important, "send running" the people of the other Poland that are dragging us down? Then slovenliness, carelessness, bad or make-believe work will not be without punishment, will not be paid. The pressure introduced will hasten economic recovery and we will get ourselves out of the economic crisis.

Every true patriot is responsible not only for his actions, which he would like to be exemplary, but also for what is taking place next to him and what is happening around him. He should not only identify evil, but actively act against it. This is the true road to recovery and walking it must bring gradual, intended results. I will close with a sentence from the article of W. Szyndler-Glowicki: "These are matters which every thinking Pole must consider today."

2950

CSO: 2600/297

## ACTIVITY OF CHEMISTRY AND RADIOMETRY INSTITUTE REVIEWED

Warsaw ZOLNIERZ WOLNOSCI in Polish 15 Oct 84 p 3

[Article by Major Roman Lercher: "The 30th Anniversary of the Army Institute of Chemistry and Radiometry: Against Dreadful Weapons"]

[Text] Yperite, phosgene, tabun, sarin, soman, hydrogen cyanide, diphosgene, chlorocyanide... These names send a chill down the spine of anyone familiar with military technology. For those with a thicker skin, I can cite numbers that would make them think. These data will help to better understand the function and significance of the Army Institute of Chemistry and Radiometry, which currently is celebrating its 30th anniversary, its record of valuable contributions to the development of modern systems for protection of troops and civilian populations against weapons of mass destruction.

In the early 1950's, the Swedish professor L.E. Tammelin discovered compounds that were hundreds of times more toxic than the classical chemical poisons such as sarin or soman. Of more than a dozen compounds of this new group, the military circles of Great Britain and the United States became particularly interested in three. Finally, they selected the compound Vx for production (the ethyl ester of S/2-diisopropylaminoethyl-methylthiophosphonic acid). This incredibly long name denotes a dense oily liquid not volatile in normal conditions. A special plant has been built for its production in the state of Indiana.

Inhaling a dosage of 0.5 mg of Vx is lethal to man. The substance exhibits exceptional toxicity when placed on the skin: 1 mg can be a lethal dose--for comparison, one water droplet weights about 20 mg. Especially ominous is the fact that the individual may not even notice the contact with Vx before it causes seizure, burning, etc.

The plant in the state of Indiana operated for only seven years until 1968. Its output capacity was not reported, but from unofficial source it is known to have been large. During those seven years it produced ...5,000 tons (!) of Vx. The lethal dose for an individual is 0.5-1.0 mg. A number cruncher may want to compare these two numbers ...

The need for creating a scientific research institute of the chemical troops resulted from major changes during the past war in the development of weapons of mass destruction. The Scientific Research Testing Grounds of Chemical Equipment created in 1954 (renamed in 1958 the Research Center for Chemical Equipment and in 1973 the Army Institute of Chemistry and Radiometry) was assigned the primary objective of developing conditions for production of basic equipment for chemical protection.

"Our institute," recounts the institute commander, Colonel Dr. Mirosław Kruczyk, "arose in response to chemical developments in the world. After the war, dozens of tons of chemical weapons remained in storehouses of Great Britain and the United States. New substances were being discovered, fortunately not tested by the Germans. This was compounded by the psychological burden of Hiroshima and Nagasaki and created conditions for development of defenses against chemical warfare.

"We started from scratch, and this is not just a turn of phrase common in such stories. Many specialists, such as myself, were drafted into the army directly from civilian jobs and given specific assignments. I remember how the chief of chemical troops showed us four pieces of equipment for detection of radiation damage and briefly stated, 'We must also have such things of our own ...'"

If today most chemical protection means are produced domestically, this is largely credited to the institute, now celebrating its anniversary. Working together with industry, it developed conditions for production of such objects as gas masks, protective clothing, spraying equipment, units for decontamination of equipment, weapons and clothing, instruments for detection of chemical and radiation contamination and smoke generators.

Each new chemical weapon created in the West calls for answering three basic questions: How can it be detected? How can the troops and the civilian population be protected against its effects? How can it be neutralized? The institute conducts research and development in close cooperation with military and civilian specialized laboratories.

The institute also participates on a larger scale, directly and indirectly, in work for the benefit of the national economy, mainly as regards environmental protection and safety controls on hazardous jobs. As a result of this activity, large quantities of toxic wastes (cyanide salts and gases) accumulated in industry and agriculture ("aged" chemical pesticide material) have been eliminated. The institute has developed a system of equipment for protection of the respiratory tract of pilots on agricultural planes, as well as for welders and metal cutting machine tool operators. These products include the prototype of an installation capturing oil mist at the Ursus works; equipment for dust-free production of television kinescopes at the Polkolor factory in Piaseczna; and air filters for disk computer memories.

Experts at the institute often take part in liquidating environmentally threatening emergencies. One extremely dangerous operation was fighting the consequences of a railroad crash near Łowicz, where chlorine gas spilled from

broken tanks. A cloud of this poisonous gas endangered the lives of the population over a large area. The train and ambulance crews and one individual rushing to the scene to help were poisoned lethally. The chemical squad under the guidance of institute staff members, including Colonel Zbigniew Makles, DSc, and Lieutenant Colonel Wiktor Tyskiewicz, MS, worked to neutralize the chlorine cloud continuously for three days, and for several subsequent days worked to ameliorate the consequences of the accident. Equally highly developed skills and experience were needed when the institute took part in mastering the eruption of hydrogen sulfide from a geologic well.

Compared to the above episodes, certain other activities may sound comical, although they are also important. One will naturally smile learning that scientists from the institute had to fight ... fungi. However, if we look more closely we will understand the importance of this action, because the fungi attacked the book collection in a storage room of the Public Library on Banach Street. They presented a serious danger to invaluable cultural treasures in that storage area. There was the threat that the pest could spread to other parts of the library. For two weeks several members of the institute staff, including Dr Czesław Rozycki and Zofia Fijałkowska, moving systematically from the top floor down to the ground floor, sprayed the collection with cresol solution from portable equipment and destroyed the micro-organisms.

"In 1979," reminisces Lieutenant Colonel Marek Zaremba, DSc(Eng), "the Civil Aviation Institute asked us to dispose of about 20 tons of pesticide. These were materials scrubbed from plane containers after field spraying. We developed a method of thermic pyrolysis, that is, we burned the materials with neutralization of the combustion products. Since we had a small amount of equipment for this purpose compared to the quantity of the pesticide, the operation continued for about three weeks. We worked in shifts around the clock."

The list is long and includes: liquidation of gas containers that the Germans left at the State Factory of Securities Printing and about 500 kg of hydrogen cyanide from the Nazi concentration camp at Belsen; expert analysis of suspicious substances found in the loading base at Ordon Street; decontamination of yperite discovered during excavation work in Przemyśl, etc. ...

During its 30 years of existence, the institute has served well both our army and our economy. Thanks to skilled and dedicated personnel, it is coping with ever more complex assignments. And, finally, although the anniversary may not be a fitting occasion, some of the institute's troubles may be mentioned. The commander points out two of the most important ones:

"We have too few employees, especially among civilians. The reason is low salaries, as generally in scientific research institutes across the nation. Another complaint is our aging equipment and research facilities."



[ Box ]

The commanders of the Army Institute of Chemistry and Radiometry: Lieutenant Colonel Włodzimierz Szec, MS (1954-57); Major Dr Jerzy Grochowski (1957-58); Colonel Zbigniew Nowak, MS (Eng) (1958-64); Colonel Dr Czesław Krzyszowski (1964-65); Colonel Dr Józef Czerwonka (1965-74); Colonel Dr Zdzisław Filipowicz (1974-1981) and Colonel Dr Mirosław Kruczyk (since 1981).

[ Box ]

Between 1954 and 1984, the institute has filed 350 inventions. It has 24 domestic patents and five industrial property protection certificates.

[ Box ]

Among the members of the staff which were with the institute throughout its existence are: Colonel Dr Mieczysław Sacluk, Dr Zbigniew Hulewicz, Colonel Jerzy Singer, MS (Eng), Maria Stec and Teodor Szwet.

9922

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## GENERAL KWACZENIUK DISCUSSES CHANGED ROLE OF ARTILLERY

Warsaw PRZEGLAD WOJSK LADOWYCH in Polish No 7, Jul 84 pp 11-16

[Article by Gen Bde Wlodzimierz Kwaczeniuk, commander of the Artillery and Rocket Troops: "The Place and Role of Artillery in Immobilizing the Enemy by Firepower"]

[Text] Gen Bde Wlodzimierz Kwaczeniuk began his military service in 1949 in the Artillery Officers' School. After graduation, he served as commander of various levels of artillery and rocket units during the years 1952-1964. In 1968, when he graduated from the M. I. Kalinin Artillery Academy, he was assigned responsible command functions. As a graduate of the General Staff Academy of the Armed Forces of the USSR, he commanded a tactical union and then became chief of the Artillery and Rocket Troops of the Warsaw Military District. Before assuming his present position, he was chief of the board of the General Staff of the Polish Armed Forces.

During its 500-year history, artillery has played a varying role in combat operations. But it was always the main firepower force, supporting, with equal success, the infantry and the cavalry in their battles. As new types of weapons appeared, particularly airplanes and tanks, a specialization began to take place in the execution of firepower tasks. Some of these tasks were assumed by tanks, which attacked targets in direct contact, and some were assumed by aircraft, which attacked objectives located beyond the practical range of artillery.

The greatest expansion of artillery, particularly its weapons, came during the Second World War. Its massed employment in situations which determined strikes and the main effort in offensive and defensive operations made it possible to achieve and maintain firepower superiority over the enemy, and this was one of the important conditions for success in combat operations. It was artillery which helped to break the Nazi offensive at Moscow; routed, in an artillery offensive, the groupings of fascist troops at Stalingrad; and, finally, ensured success of the operation at Kursk. The decisive role of artillery in battles earned it the sobriquet "God of War."

Military experience, the appearance of new types of weapons, such as armored transports, infantry combat vehicles, combat helicopters, and especially rockets able to carry nuclear loads, make it necessary to take a new look at the employment of artillery in combat operations.

In view of this, what kind of role will artillery play and what place will it have on the present and future field of battle in attacking the enemy by firepower?

Without going into the problem deeply, it may be said that the place and role of artillery will not undergo any great changes. It will remain the main firepower source for ground troops, particularly in operations conducted without the use of nuclear weapons. But its forms and the methods of its operations will change, as the needs of the battlefield and technical and structural changes in artillery itself require.

The factor which will make for changes in how it is used is the increased maneuverability of the armored and mechanized troops. Artillery which cannot accompany, uninterruptedly, the military fighting units will not be able to fulfill its basic task in their behalf--the immobilization of the enemy by firepower.

That is why artillery has adapted itself in recent years to this new role, to conducting maneuverable forms of battle and more effective ways of immobilizing the enemy. New weapons have been added to its armament: self-propelled equipment, successive generations of anti-armor guided missiles and rocket launchers. Improvements have been made in reconnaissance weapons, in topographic and geodesic control, and in commanding and directing firepower. The remaining armament equipment has been modernized.

Such action was made necessary by the growing range of artillery tasks and the need to attack many objectives of a nontraditional nature, including artillery nuclear-attack weapons, self-propelled artillery, radio-electronic weapons, and a large amount of armored weapons in use.

The ability of the potential enemy to use the new battle weapons made it necessary to develop qualitatively new methods of counteracting them, in order to make it possible for our own subunits to avoid or reduce the effects of the enemy's firepower. Methods of shortening the firepower reaction time, as a factor which would ensure that we will open fire on the enemy before he attacks us, are being put into use. More effective ways of attacking the enemy are being put into practice: massed fire, a mobile zone of fire, and use of fire-reconnaissance groups in attacking the enemy's artillery.

The broader range of operations and the need to destroy various targets demands that artillery be used in close cooperation with other means of destruction: attack aircraft, fire-support helicopters, and fire from tank and infantry combat vehicles. In other words, immobilization of the enemy has taken on a complex character with the participation of all of the means of destruction available to the military commander, including artillery as defined by its combat capability.

By complex immobilization by firepower we mean the continuous, coordinated, organized according to a uniform plan and under one command, use of fire against the enemy, employing various means of destruction, including: attack by rockets carrying conventional loads, aircraft and combat helicopters; massed, concentrated and other types of artillery fire; fire from tanks and infantry combat vehicles; and also explosive, mining and igniting means--in order to win and maintain fire superiority over the enemy and ensure that our own troops will be effectively supported while they are executing the combat (operational) tasks assigned to them. As a result of this, losses should be inflicted on the enemy which will cause him to lose his ability to conduct organized combat operations.

Complex immobilization of the enemy by firepower is planned and organized for the entire depth of the operation, but particularly during the period when the unions and military units are executing its specific tasks, both while the enemy's defenses are being broken, when its offensive maneuvers are being repulsed and water obstacles are overcome, and when second groups are being brought into battle or landing operations are being performed.

The place and role of artillery in the complex immobilization by firepower stems from the definition given and is also defined by the proportions of qualitative and quantitative input of other weapons: rockets with conventional charges, airplanes, combat helicopters, tanks, etc., in the accomplishment of this basic task, the destruction of the enemy. It is now assumed that the share of artillery in the complex immobilization by firepower may amount to approximately 60 to 70 percent of the general range of tasks, and it is the largest in comparison with other combat arms.

Aviation has an important part in immobilization by fire, including the fire-support helicopters, for it executes about 30 to 35 percent of the tasks. War experience and experience from drills, however, shows that it is heavily dependent upon weather conditions, the time of day or year, or even on where it is based. Under such circumstances, artillery frequently will have to take over aviation's fire tasks, thus emphasizing its universality and independence from the effect of external factors. Probably in specific situations, artillery together with rockets, will become almost entirely the executor of the tasks involved in the complex immobilization of the enemy by firepower.

One of artillery's important advantages is its ability to constantly accompany the mechanized and armored fighting units. Simplicity in the organization of cooperation makes it possible for it to immediately open fire at the request of the military commander being supported, and to strike at any target which stands in the way of executing a combat action. It thus guarantees its own troops a high degree of safety.

Today's artillery has a large range, strong firepower, and the ability to execute a maneuver by fire and equipment, which allows it to mass and concentrate fire in a short time. It can effectively destroy concealed and open, mobile and steady, observed and unobserved targets. The great firing rapidity of the guns and launchers permits them to create a high intensity of fire. The maneuvering capability ensures that the required density of guns can be obtained in

decisive areas for the purpose of winning and maintaining fire superiority, and also is a factor which makes it easier to preserve combat survivability by quick evasion of the enemy's fire. Artillery equipment makes it easier to quickly become ready to fire and to maintain long firing periods against the enemy. These advantages of artillery permit it to continue to remain a means of destruction which will most effectively pave the way for our own troops and at the same time constitute a main obstacle in the enemy's development of offensive operations.

Artillery's participation in immobilization by firepower will be dependent on the nature of the combat operations. Under conventional circumstances it will destroy and disable the enemy's objectives in a tactical or closer operations zone, making it possible to achieve the offensive goals.

It will basically determine the durability and activeness of the defenses in fighting the enemy on the approaches, making it difficult for him to attack in the foremost areas, or to destroy his forces and weapons in the break-in regions and during the execution of counterattacks and counterstrikes.

In operations where weapons of mass destruction are employed, the enemy's basic objectives--nuclear attack weapons, high-accuracy weapons, troop groupings, command posts and anti-aircraft weapons---will be destroyed by nuclear weapons. It will be artillery's job to destroy the targets located in direct proximity to our own troops, not destroyed by nuclear weapons or destroyed only in a limited area. Supplementing, in a specified way, the actions of nuclear weapons, artillery will destroy (disable) artillery batteries, including the atomic, infantry and firepower weapons at the points of resistance, the command posts of the lower echelons, reconnaissance, radio-engineering, radar and other weapons.

The qualitative and quantitative changes occurring in the organizational structures, technology and armaments, and artillery's operations require unceasing preparation of the artillery cadres. This places great demands on artillery training in educating commanders at all levels, especially in preparing them to skilfully command the artillery and direct its fire to the interests of a combined-arms battle.

The future field of battle will place great demands on artillery insofar as its participation in the enemy's immobilization by firepower is concerned. Having this in mind over the last few years, in a series of tactical drills combined with artillery firing of combat ammunition, including in drills under the cryptonym "Laweta," commanders, tactical unions and artillery units have been intensively prepared to execute this basic task in combat operations. This course of action will be continued and will include:

- application of new battle regulations, and consequently the preparation and dissemination of instructions on rocket and artillery troop combat operations, new training programs, and programs for the conduct of tactical drills and firings;

- skills in the successive addition of armament and equipment (self-propelled guns, fire-direction and command vehicles, ranging lasers, automatic sonic sets, etc.);



--in training staffs and commands:

- a) improving skills for planning the use of artillery and organizing the command and direction of firepower;
- b) learning new ways of using artillery (conducting a deep fire barrier, a movable fire zone, fire-reconnaissance group operations);
- c) establishing the habit of organizing operations directly in the field (reconnaissance, coordination of artillery operations, etc.);
- d) improving skills in organizing cooperation with military subunits and other combat arms;
- e) implementing measures aimed at improving the combat survivability of artillery subunits;

--in training subunits:

- a) ensuring the continuity of firepower support by military subunits by raising the standing of the battalion and regimental artillery;
- b) shortening the firing reaction time;
- c) improving methods of functional operations and those of the command, reconnaissance, firing and other subunits, particularly by organizing training directly in the field;
- d) preparing for action in a complex tactical situation and difficult terrain conditions;
- e) rigorous enforcement of training program requirements and programs for conducting tactical drills and firing;

--broad use of non-Table of Organization and Equipment artillery inspection groups as organs to stimulate training;

--efficient and economical conduct of lessons and drills so that results are consistent with outlays and materials and training time are used to the utmost;

--modernization of training base simultaneously with the addition of new models of weapons and equipment.

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Forty years ago, on the 20th of July 1944, artillery units of the First Army of the Polish Armed Forces, in support of the Soviet Army's offensive on the Turiya and Bug [Rivers], were the first to step on their native land. Their combat deed contributed greatly to the liberation of the fatherland from Nazi occupation and the achievement of a Berlin victory at the side of the allied Soviet Army.

Today, in daily service, artillerymen are proudly continuing the fighting traditions of their predecessors on the front lines.

Homage is being paid to them for their war heroism and they are being praised for their peacetime labor by an order issued by the minister of national defense, No 6, dated 17 April 1984: "Polish Armed Forces Rocket and Artillery Troops Day," observed for the first time on the eve of the 40th anniversary of the establishment of People's Poland-- the 20th of July. This distinction requires that we, the soldiers of the artillery and rocket troops, make a greater effort to train ourselves, to incessantly improve our combat skills, so as to be worthy of the designation of our holiday, which, as we read in the order: "May it be a symbol of victory and rebirth, of homage for the artillerymen who dies in the struggle for the country's liberation. May it laud the name of the Polish artillerymen. May it serve the peace, defense and security of our socialist fatherland, the Polish People's Republic."

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## ROMANIA

### PARTICIPATION OF ARMED FORCES IN ECONOMIC, SOCIOPOLITICAL LIFE

Bucharest REVISTA DE ISTORIE in Romanian Aug 84 pp 740-758

[Article by Stefan Paslaru: "The Army As an Active Participant in Socialist Romania's Economic and Social-Political Activity"/]

[Text/ Characterized by fine qualities inherited from the Romanian people's glorious past for defending the nation's existence, independence, sovereignty and integrity, the army participated fully and actively in the Antifascist and Anti-imperialist Revolution for Social and National Liberation, joining the general revolutionary movement and taking an important place in Romanian society. In judging the strong national-patriotic feeling evidenced by the Romanian soldiers in the fervent days of the insurrection, ROMANIA LIBERA quite rightly pointed out that "The Romanian army has spoken... In these stirring days it has proved that it is of the country and of the people. It is of all of us..." (1)

In the democratic stage of the revolution under the RCP's leadership a gradual but radical change took place in the army in the course of a uniform and continuous process accompanied by extensive changes in the state organization and domestic politics as a whole. The national military element was increasingly integrated in the evolution of the revolutionary changes the country was going through.

The considerable changes in the army's political-moral character itself and in its social role and functions were strikingly illustrated by the patriotic and democratic stand taken by the army as a whole in the major political confrontations that took place during the years of the democratic revolution.

The progressive patriotic attitude of the troops was fully expressed at the meetings organized in favor of establishing (on 6 March 1945) and then of supporting the first broadly democratic government headed by Dr Petru Groza, by their constructive and loyal commitment to the electoral campaign after they had been accorded the vote, and by the victory of the coalition of democratic forces under the RCP's leadership. The army vote in the elections of 19 November 1946, over 90 percent in favor of the candidates of the Bloc of Democratic Parties, as well as the satisfaction, enthusiasm and complete loyalty with which the military greeted the revolutionary change in the form of government (the

proclamation of the Romanian People's Republic on 30 December) proved conclusively that the Romanian army was becoming closely integrated in the nation's new society and politics as an important member of the series of forces interested in democratic and revolutionary social reform. (2) In specially emphasizing the role of the military corps in the progress toward the new social institutions Nicolae Ceausescu said, "By accomplishing the armed national antifascist insurrection, by establishing the first democratic government, and by making the start of socialist construction possible the armed forces, including the command personnel, the officers, and the generals, followed the Communist Party line and sided with the people. That was vital to the success of all the battles that were fought in Romania." (3)

The army's constructive spirit was particularly evident in the effort to restore the industry, transportation and telecommunications that had been damaged by the war. In his appeal to all Romania's youth to help restore the nation Nicolae Ceausescu, in charge of the revolutionary youth organization at the time, wrote in the beginning of 1945: "By our labor let us restore the country. By our labor let us help to build an abundant and beautiful Romanian as it has never been before." (4) In response to this warm appeal the soldiers joined in all the programs organized on the national level by the democratic revolutionary government on the economic reconstruction front, in helping the working peasants repair their agricultural tools, in plowing and sowing and in eliminating the effects of the drought. In this way they further consolidated the unity between the people and their armed forces that the Communist Party considered an objective necessity of the revolutionary process in Romania and an important factor for general social progress. As the Communist Party's central press organ wrote, "The Romanian troops, the brave heroes who carried the Romanian tricolor alongside the glorious Red Army in the struggle to annihilate the German fascist war machine, did no less in the work of restoration... They threw down the weapons, guns and machine guns with which they had destroyed the Hitlerite occupiers and took up in their hard workers' hands the tools with which they began to rebuild and restore what the Hitlerite criminals had destroyed." (5) In those fervent years the Romanian army, inspired by an exalting patriotism, helped to repair hundreds of kilometers of railways, dozens of bridges including those at Ulmeni-Salaj, Sarmasag and Simleu, and the railroad complexes in Bucharest, Galati and Ploiesti, to eradicate the mines, and to collect the armaments, munitions and other war materiel in the former combat zones, restoring over 120,000 hectares of arable land to agriculture. The soldiers also participated in the actions to halt speculation in bread grains and maintain order in transportation, in restoring important material goods that had become surplus to the national economy, in sending special detachments to help eliminate the effects of the drought, in collecting and shipping bread grains to the stricken regions, in organizing hostels in some regiments for the children in the disaster areas, and in the efficient conduct of the spring and fall agricultural campaigns by providing the authorities with thousands of soldiers, horse-drawn and motor vehicles, and tractors. The army's total contribution to the 1945-1947 agricultural campaigns numbers over 833,000 man-days, about 690,000 animal-days, and over 108,000 hectares of plowing and sowing. (6) This expressed the army's unanimous desire to participate in specific ways in the implementation of the government's policy and in the nation's progress, and it broadened the army's social role and multiplied the ties that bound the soldiers to the masses.

At the close of 1947 the Communist Party actually gained the leadership of the military corps of the nation through the appointment of a member of the Politburo of the Central Committee as head of the Ministry of National Defense. Major structural, political and social changes had been made in the army that fully prepared it for further assimilation of qualitatively new elements arising in the process of socialist construction.

Romania's entry into a new stage in its evolution and the economic and social reforms that characterized the development of the new order produced some radical changes in the very character of the army, which became an army of the socialist type.

By the beginning of 1948 the army was directly involved in the new Romanian politics and in implementation of the tasks set by the Sixth Party Congress in order to form the new supreme organ of state power and to adopt the first constitution of the republic, instruments indispensable to the future socialist achievements. After the changes made in the electoral law on 22 January 1948 had granted the military the unrestricted right to be elected regardless of rank or function, the army was involved in all aspects of the electoral campaign and in a number of actions in and outside the barracks. General Order No 66 of 2 March 1948 of the minister of national defense called upon the entire army "from privates to the highest rank" to take part "unanimously in the electoral campaign in order to prove its civic awareness and solidarity with the entire people in order to strengthen and perfect people's democracy in Romania." (7) At the same time Ministerial Decision No 1863 of the same day established the Central Electoral Commission of the Army, which publicized the new legislation on elections and the Program-Manifesto of the People's Democratic Front in the military units in particular ways and organized discussion of the Draft Constitution. (8) Thanks to the measures taken on the central level, during the pre-election period over 6,000 soldiers took part in the electoral indoctrination and propaganda campaign in rural areas. (9) Considering this participation "invaluable," the Plenum of the RCP Central Committee of 10-11 June 1948 resolved that "The soldiers and officers have performed intensive political work and and a widespread cultural activity" demonstrating that thanks to the party's special attention "The Romanian army is increasingly inspired with a new and truly democratic spirit." (10)

The elections held on 28 March 1948 resulted in an impressive victory of the popular forces led by the Communist Party, with over 93.2 percent of the total votes cast. (11) Confirming their support of the socialist way of national development, the vast majority of the masses of soldiers voted for the candidates of the People's Democratic Front. As it says in a document of 2 April 1948, "On election day the army fully proved its high level of civic training and its dedication to the regime both by its worthy behavior and encouragement at civilian polls and by its votes for the FDP /People's Democratic Front/." In the army, 98.86 percent of all the soldiers who voted favored the FDP candidates. (13)

In the Grand National Assembly, convened in its first session on 7 April 1948, the participation of the 11 army representatives as deputies (14) was noted with satisfaction as an eloquent expression and outcome of the political rights that had been granted the military.



The military deputies were an active presence from the start in the discussion and ratification of the various laws. In stating the army's position, Brig Gen Iacob Teclu and Sgt Matei A. Tanase, who took part in the general discussion of the draft of the new constitution, pledged to uphold that vital document without reservation and to defend the new regime and the people's republic to the death. (15)

The political and civil rights granted the military by the Constitution and the provisions concerning the importance of national defense were indicative of the vital importance attached to the army's missions in the socialist state.

The revolutionary act nationalizing the main production means, which was ratified by the Plenum of the RCP Central Committee of 10-11 June 1948 and voted by the Grand National Assembly on 11 June 1948, met with full approval and a wide response. Nationalization was an event of historic importance in the process of instituting socialist production relations and a turning point in the nation's history, making a decisive contribution to the abolition of exploitation of man by man, to the formation of a strong socialist state sector, and to the start of planned management of the economy. Furthermore, by doing away with the great industrial, financial and commercial bourgeoisie and the economic positions of foreign capital, nationalization made the working class, under the Communist Party's leadership, the leading class and the organizer of production, enabling it to plan the supply and technical equipment of the army and in exceptional cases to use the the nation's entire economic, industrial and financial power to defend its national sovereignty and independence.

Reflecting the army's attitude in the motions and telegrams and letters approved at the meetings in units and headquarters, the soldiers warmly expressed their full approval of this revolutionary document as well as their firm resolve to defend the peoples socialist property with force. As it said in one of these motions, "We soldiers of the Romanian Army are aware of the importance of this resolve, and we take our pledge to redouble our efforts to improve our training as defenders of the nation that is now more than ever of us and of all those who work." (16)

The army performed its tasks responsibly and continued its efforts begun in the period of the democratic revolution to join in the task of Romania's economic reconstruction and restoration alongside the masses. Responding to the party's appeals, the soldiers worked alongside the brigades of youth volunteers at the big national worksites in 1948-1950, and also in the campaign to restore and build some railroads and highways. As an army news bulletin of the time said, "The UTM's [Union of Working Youth] enthusiasm for volunteer labor keeps attracting the army units to both public projects and those within the barracks, creating a truly stimulating atmosphere among the officers, noncoms and privates." (17) Between 1 April and 1 November 1948 alone about 1,000 soldiers joined by a railroad construction crew took part in some major embankment and bed operations at the Salva-Viseu worksite. Alongside the working masses, thousands of soldiers made an important contribution to the completion of the Craiova CFR [Romanian Railroads], the Bucharest Garment Factory and some streetcar lines in Timisoara and to the repair of some highways in the Jiu defile and in the Sibiu, Brasov, Arad, Tirgu Mures and Buzau areas. (18)

Regarding the army as one of the important forces that should be totally committed under party leadership to the socialist reform of agriculture that is vital to the nation's social and economic progress, in keeping with the circumstances and the army's possibilities, the RCP Central Committee's report to the Plenum of 3-5 March 1949 recommended that "A campaign should be conducted among the troops of the Romanian Army to explain how to improve peasant management" and some soldiers should be trained as "good agitators and propagandists to publicize collective management." (19)

The RCP assigned the party and youth organs and organizations in the army the task of explaining, in all their political work in units and subunits, "perseveringly and thoroughly the close alliance between the proletariat and the peasantry and the necessity of the hegemony of the proletariat in that alliance, and publicizing the superiority of socialist management methods in agriculture by bringing out the advantages of collective management." (20)

Socialist cooperativization of agriculture, which was accomplished along with industrial development and consolidation of the worker-peasant revolutionary power, was an occasion to form a new awareness among the soldiers coming from the working peasantry who were trained in units and subunits to disseminate the importance and correctness of that reform after their transfer to the reserves. As Nicolae Ceausescu said in 1950, shortly after he was made head of the Higher Political Directorate of the Army and deputy minister with the rank of brigadier general, "The soldier must be educated to understand that collective management is the way out of poverty... He must realize that by defending national independence he is defending his better future and that of his children." (21) In those critical years (1950-1954) for the new character of the Romanian armed forces, in which Nicolae Ceausescu served in the higher army command, the soldiers were deeply impressed by the far-sightedness, perseverance, firm party loyalty and innovating spirit with which he militated to further the revolutionary reform of the nation's military corps and to give it the characteristics that would make it a people's army entirely in the service of the people, the party and socialism. The fact is highly significant that even in that period Nicolae Ceausescu advanced a new and revolutionary conception of the army's increasingly active integration in the task of socialist construction, and it made considerable changes in the contemporary conception of the army's functions and role in Romania's social-political and economic activity and of the critical role and many meanings of the unity between the army and the people. In 1953 Nicolae Ceausescu said, "The Romanian people's army's inseparable tie with the people and its unswerving faith in the people are the main sources of its strength." (22) It is significant in this connection that as a result of the directions of the chief of the Higher Political Directorate of the Army as to extensive and continued efforts to convince the masses of soldiers of the historical necessity of agricultural socialization, it was decided that 25 percent of the subjects of the enlisted men's political training would explain and popularize the cooperativization program, and that all military publications, army garrison homes and soldiers' clubs would support that program actively and comprehensively. (23)

Thanks to the effort to explain and popularize socialist agriculture, in the first 2 years of this program alone over 2,700 enlisted men and more than 4,400 parents of privates, sergeants, military school pupils and personnel joined agricultural cooperatives (24), while the Higher Political Directorate carried out

the party's decisions by drafting a series of organizational and political measures to provide army training for a large number of political and technical personnel needed for this reform, such as party organizers for agricultural co-operatives (in the period of collective agricultural management), political instructors of directors of state agricultural enterprises and agricultural mechanization enterprises, brigade leaders, tractor drivers, bookkeepers and accountants. Among the enlisted soldiers over 26,800 agricultural specialists were trained in special-purpose courses in 1950-1953 alone, including 14,686 tractor drivers, 6,150 bookkeepers, 2,500 brigade leaders, 2,283 political activists and 1,191 accountants. (25) This program was continued in the following period, contributing to the success of the party's agricultural policy, to growth and development of the new detachments of the rural working class, and to consolidation of the tie between the army and the people.

Along with the military institution's important contribution to the gradual socialization of agriculture, the army continued to be an active presence in the midst of domestic political events. The soldiers took part in the first elections for the local organs of the state administration on 3 December 1950 alongside the millions of Romanian workers, peasants and intellectuals and those of the national minorities. The hundreds of military deputies elected then and in the following years as living proof of the army's prestige among the people played an active part in the solution of local problems of public concern and in the civic programs as well, demonstrating their civic spirit and initiative and their creative powers in this field too in the extensive process of building the new society.

The military also showed the same active presence in discussion of the new fundamental state law ratified in 1952. As the deputy Brig Gen Nicolae Ceausescu, declared at the 13th Session of the Grand National Assembly in September 1952, "The officers, sergeants and privates of the Romanian Armed Forces took an active part together with the entire working people in the discussion of the Draft Constitution. They closely associated this civic action with their military duties, strengthening military order and discipline, improving their combat skills and raising the level of political training." (26)

While reflecting the radical social, economic and political changes that were made in the first years of the socialist revolution, the second National Constitution also reflected the main features of the social and state order, establishing the system of state organs in conformity with the territorial administrative organization. The provisions granting full civil rights, including the right to elect and be elected, as well as those defining national defense as "every Romanian citizen's sacred duty" (Article 92), were maintained in the new Constitution in support of the civic responsibility of the military and their deep devotion to the high ideals of socialism. As the deputy, Maj Gen Jacob Teclu, said in the discussions of the draft of the new Constitution, "The creation of the people's army strengthened the army's tie with the people, and the participation of the military in national politics has come into its own. Hundreds of soldiers are taking part in management of public affairs as deputies on the people's councils." (27)

The consistent and responsible involvement of the military in the main domestic events was also evident during the elections of deputies to the Grand National



Assembly on 30 November 1952. As it said in a document analyzing these activities, the work done by commanding officers and the party and youth organs and organizations in the army followed the party leadership's directions and included "the whole mass of soldiers," who "voted almost 100 percent for the FDP candidates," (28) including 16 army representatives elected as deputies. (29)

Through its representatives, the army was also an active factor in explaining and disseminating the party policy in the electoral campaign for the elections of deputies to the people's councils on 20 December 1953. The Higher Political Directorate picked 1,848 officers who were assigned after thorough instruction to all the administrative regions of the country, where they did effective work in the rural electoral campaign for more than 2 weeks. Over 99 percent of the total votes cast in the army were for the FDP candidates, and 873 of the elected deputies were soldiers, 295 of whom were elected to the communal people's councils, 221 to the district people's councils, 46 to the regional people's councils, and 311 to the city people's councils. (30)

In the following years too the elections to the supreme organ of state power and to the local organs were opportunities for the party organs and organizations in units to improve their work and make a new and wide deployment of political and educational activity in order to make new progress in training the soldiers.

Meanwhile the army continued to be an important political-organizational factor in the efforts toward socialization of agriculture, both through training agricultural specialists needed for that process (31) and through the extensive and comprehensive political work done by the party organizations among the soldiers in order to carry out the party's assignments to convince the working peasantry of the advantages of cooperativization. To that end, in the summer of 1956 the head of the Higher Political Directorate asked the political organs to do intensive work with the enlisted men and especially with those about to be transferred to the reserve so that they would know and carry out the Resolution of the Plenary Session of the Party Central Committee of 16-17 July 1956 on measures to carry out the tasks set by the Seventh Party Congress for socialization of agriculture. (32) It was the duty of the party organs and organizations, in addition to the soldiers' assimilation of the decisions of this resolution, to see that every soldier returning to his village upon transfer to the reserve would be in the first ranks of the working peasants in the agricultural cooperatives, would work hard there to increase agricultural production and to protect and further develop public property, and would be a good propagandist and inspired agitator among the working peasants on behalf of socialization of agriculture. (33)

The soldiers were not greatly involved in the industrial and construction sectors, but they helped to build some industrial or cultural capacities in 1952-1955, such as the Bucharest 23 August Stadium, the Bicz Hydroelectric Power Plant, the Navodari Chemical Plants, and the Cerna-Jiu and Ozana-Cracow railroad lines, and to build, extend and modernize some important roads, bridges and highways as well as the railroads.

Because of their political-moral qualities, discipline and spirit of order, which actually characterizes the army as a whole, the Romanian troops were called upon to intervene under various exceptional circumstances that required a

concentrated, intensive and prompt effort on the regional or national level. Thus the military units were asked to help in the case of heavy snowfalls like the blizzard of 1954, or in operations for protection against floods or frosts. In reference to "acts of the patriotism displayed by the soldiers in the operations to clear snow and secure the public's supply of food products," a news bulletin at the beginning of 1954 stated that this activity, which was received with great responsibility throughout the army, "became the main task among the efforts of the political organs and the party and UTM organizations," (34) which took all organizational and political measures to meet the requirements flowing from the appeal of the Party Central Committee and the Council of Ministers to accomplish the assigned mission. Throughout the period when the military units were helping to clear the snow from the cities, villages, roads, bridges, highways and railroads, most of the units formed detachments of soldiers staffed with commanding officers and political instructors. In each of those units party and UTM organizations were formed that greatly contributed to the efficient performance of the operation throughout their activity.

The army continued to help the workers in the state agricultural enterprises and agricultural mechanization enterprises, especially in harvesting and storing the bread grains. Thus in 1956 the army contributed 87,523 men to the spring, summer and fall agricultural campaigns, 82,023 of them to the state agricultural enterprises and 5,500 to the agricultural mechanization enterprises, and 9,196 of the total number were tractor operators (machinists and drivers). (35) In 1959 over 120,000 soldiers were assigned to collect the harvests in the state agricultural enterprises, in 1960 some 53,000 enlisted men and 120,000 youths ("a contingent surplus") worked in the fields, and in 1964 the army contributed 25,000 men to various activities in the Central Gostat Trust and about 4,000 trucks to carry the bread grains. (36) In all the agricultural campaigns in which the soldiers took part they worked with dedication, mostly exceeding the norms stipulated in the agreements concluded with the Ministry of Agriculture and the Food Industry. This enabled the Ministry of National Defense to cover its outlays on the activity out of the incomes obtained and also to make a profit amounting to over 1,231,000 lei in 1960 and 4.7 million lei in 1965. (37)

The army also responded to all national efforts to collect and deliver scrap metal, to make major savings, and to combat waste. The intensive efforts of the party organs and organizations in units resulted in major progress in reducing the consumption and maintenance norms and the regulation percentage of losses of foodstuffs and other materials in storage, in improving the work of the shops for repairing armaments and equipment in the inventory and in prolonging their lifetimes, in maintaining equipment and making more rational use of the agricultural lands around the units that could not be placed in the economic cycle, in reducing the plan for supply out of the central reserve, and in improving the soldiers food by using the output of the army's auxiliary farms. (38) Moreover the army placed surplus goods to the value of about 124 million lei in the economic cycle in 1956-1960. (39) Upon analyzing the units' requirements, the army command succeeded in largely completing the tasks set by the Seventh Party Congress for increasing the areas for agriculture. During 1958 some 25,537 hectares were turned over to the Ministry of Agriculture and the Food Industry and the people's councils permanently, and 54,450 hectares in temporary use. (40) Furthermore, beginning in 1958, the army transferred a great many rest homes and cottages from seaside resorts to the jurisdiction of the newly founded National Tourism Office. (41)



In the stage of laying the foundations of socialist society, one of the most complex ones in the Romanian Army's history, radical changes were made in all aspects of army life. Firmly attached to the structure and character of the new order, the army became a true school for indoctrinating the young generation in the spirit of socialism. It was fully committed to implementing the party and state policy and the decisions on nationalization of the main production means and on starting national socialist industrialization, to agricultural cooperativization, and to explaining and publicizing the ideas in the documents of the Communist Party congresses and plenums as well as the FDP's programs and manifestoes, and it directly contributed to implementation of objectives of socialist construction. Noting the army's presence in all the social changes critical to Romania's future, Nicolae Ceausescu pointed out that it "played an active part in and militated for all the revolutionary reforms in Romania. The army participated not in general but specifically in the whole effort toward revolutionary social reforms in villages, in enterprises and in districts, and in that way it became identified with Romania's general interests and is a powerful force for socialist construction and for defense of the nation's revolutionary gains, independence and sovereignty." (42)

In the period inaugurated by the Ninth Party Congress, the richest in achievements in the whole national history, dominated by the strong personality of Nicolae Ceausescu, the eminent politician and statesman and inspired revolutionary and patriot, his own basic conception of the unity and indivisibility of the whole process of construction and defense of socialism was developed in accordance with the specific-historical internal and international realities. In the political-military view of the Communist Party and Nicolae Ceausescu, the army's increasingly profound integration in economic, social and intellectual affairs and its direct and active participation in the nation's extensive constructive task, in the implementation of the party's and state's domestic and foreign policies, and in making and implementing decisions are inseparable from the unbreakable bond between defense of the nation and development of its economic structure and from complete incorporation of the military institution in the constructive socialist effort. As a social organization integrated in the overall social whole and as an "inseparable part of the state" that is an "important sector of the Romanian state's activity," (43) the army, an institution specialized in national defense, has steadily developed in step with the evolution of socialist society by constantly improving its relations with the social and state mechanism. The changes made in Romania's social and class structure in the period inaugurated by the Ninth Party Congress and the constant improvement of the organizational structure for the increasingly extensive and active participation of the working class and all workers in socioeconomic management and in making and implementing decisions have continually influenced the army, which is making a significant contribution to the nation's general progress along with its comprehensive preparation for priority performance of its basic function.

The military institution has continued to be an active presence in the very heart of the nation's great events. Army personnel have been extensively involved in examining the vital problems of domestic and foreign policy on the basis of the party (43a) and state documents, supporting the practical application of all the adopted measures. The Romanian people's political-ideological unity and the fact that the RCP leads both society and every individual part of it keep securing the connection between the army's activity and that of the other state

and social bodies, as well as the strength of the nation's military institution. Nicolae Ceausescu says, "The very improvement of its fighting capacity, the possibilities of technical equipment, and the way the Romanian Army will have to fight, if it comes to that, require a close tie with the people and active participation in all society, thereby closely welding that inseparable unity while securing for the Romanian Army the entire nation's active support under any circumstances." (44)

The continuing growth of the role of the state and its specialized components, including that of the main institution charged with the primary role in national defense, is one of the characteristics of the historical stage the Romanian nation is going through. This development of the state's role involved the formation of an adequate organizational structure for the uniform functioning of all sectors of activity and for exemplary application of the policy of further enhancement of socialist democracy. In the present stage of the nation's development the evolution of the state in society and the ever closer involvement of state and public activity have also directly affected the army's role and tasks in the social whole and the unity between the national military institution and the people.

The army's place and role in the state system have continued to take various forms, such as subordination to the state organs with responsibilities directly concerning the military corps, relations of guidance and control in its relations with various state organs with defense tasks, collaboration with other state components in solving problems of particular or national importance, and direct relations from organization to organization. (45)

The inclusion of army representatives in various organs of state power and administration reflects the army's role in society, the political responsibility of the military institution, and its close integration in the Romanian socialist state.

Directly or indirectly, as an institution or through its components, the army shares in the functioning of the organs of state power (Grand National Assembly, State Council) on the central level, in that of the organs of state administration (Council of Ministers), in that of bodies of a party and state character (Supreme Council for Romania's Social and Economic Development, Defense Council, Council for Socialist Culture and Education), and in the activity of the Socialist Democracy and Unity Front. The army is also present in the people's councils and their executive committees and in the local defense councils, playing an active part in the performance of the tasks of the state organ in which it acts.

The army representatives' presence in these organs and bodies is directly due to the fact that the military enjoy full political rights like all Romanian citizens. Moreover members of the Communist Party and the army youth organization can elect or be elected as members of the central and local party organs or of the Union of Communist Youth.

As members of the RCP Central Committee, of the county, municipal, city or communal party organs, the military play an active and direct part in national politics, in the exercise of political power, in discussing, making and approving

decisions, and in the treatment and resolution of the various problems, primarily those bearing upon the military field.

For instance, at the conferences of the county, municipal and city party organizations that were held on the eve of the 10th Party Congress, about 1,500 military delegates of the party organizations in the army contributed to the discussion of local problems, informing delegates about the military communists' efforts to strengthen the units' fighting capacity. (46)

In the elections that were held in the said party organizations, 145 military party members, garrison commanders, secretaries of both political councils and party committees, commanders of military centers and other administrative personnel in the units and commands met with the approval of the communist delegates. (47)

The officers' active participation in national politics and solution of the major problems of the nation's development and advancement is illustrated by the steadily growing number of soldiers elected to the highest legislative and party decision-making organs in Romania. Thus 13 generals and ranking officers were elected as members or alternate members of the Central Committee at the 11th Party Congress, and 16 army personnel were elected to the Grand National Assembly in March 1975. (48)

The army's integration in Romanian society was graphically reflected in the army's active participation in implementation of the measures to develop the national economy and in the entire task of building socialist society.

United in interests and aspirations with the entire nation, the army increased its participation on many levels in the performance of tasks of economic construction. This important social function of the army is based on the party's very idea that all workers must combine productive work with military training just as the troops must combine combat training with their participation in productive work in the national economy. At the same time, for large groups of specialists such as engineers, bridge builders, railroad workers, motor vehicle drivers and technical military personnel, work in the national economy means performing training tasks under conditions resembling combat ones. Back in February 1966, in pointing out the soldiers' help in checking and remedying the effects of the floods in the Cris valley, Nicolae Ceausescu emphasized the army's new tasks in achieving some goals of socialist construction. He said, "The Romanian Army, whose duty it is to defend the people's revolutionary gains, is always ready not only to perform this high duty honorably if need be but also to take an active part in, to aid and contribute to the peaceful work of socialist construction alongside the entire people." (49)

Along with the political and combat training necessary to maintain a high fighting capacity and aid to training the Patriotic Guards and to the detachments for training youth for national defense, the soldiers understand the highly patriotic nature of their duty to take an active part in the task of construction and have constructed many buildings and socioeconomic capacities. In addition to the forms of the army's productive activity that have become traditional such as building highways, bridges and railroads, in the period since 1965 efforts have developed and been intensified to build industrial, tourist and social-cultural capacities, housing and hydraulic engineering and irrigation systems and to help in coal and petroleum extraction.



In the 1966-1970 period industrial construction was one of the main sectors where the soldiers' labor was materialized and the economic aspect of the army's social function acquired new dimensions. In that five-year plan the army's integration in construction work was intensified by the soldiers' participation in development and modernization of more than 40 productive enterprises and in construction of a great many industrial units, including the Pitesti Petrochemical Combine, the Govora and Slobozia chemical combines, the Sibiu Auto Parts Plant, the Alba Iulia Porcelain Factory and the Drobeta-Turnu Severin Fiberboard Factory. In the same period the soldiers made a very considerable contribution to construction and modernization of 1,400 km of national highways, to construction or repair of more than 1,800 linear meters of bridges and footbridges, over 300 km of doubled railway lines, 3,629 km of various kinds of railway lines, 3,142 km of maintenance operations on railway lines, and about 8 million cubic meters of embankments and reinforcements, and to systematization of stations and various other railroad constructions. The most important of the very extensive achievements in communications that the soldiers aided were the construction of the Bucharest-Pitesti Superhighway, the Danube bridge at Vadul Oii-Giurgeni and the Otopeni International Airport and the modernization and expansion of Constanta Seaport. (50)

Irrigation and land improvement projects are another sector wherein the army is contributing to national economic development. In the 1966-1970 period the military implemented investment projects to the value of 2.41 billion lei in the Valea Carasu, Terasa Braila, Nicoresti-Tecuci, Calafat-Bailesti and other irrigation systems and in the land improvements in the areas of the Paltinu, Catelu, Arges and Cimpulung dams. (51)

Highly valuing this activity of great importance to the tasks of socialist economic development, the party secretary general asked the army in February 1970 to combine military training with practical work for socialist construction because "Only if it harmoniously combines combat training with participation in socialist construction does the army really do its duty to the people and the nation." (52)

In the 1971-1975 Five-Year Plan too the military made major progress in their tasks in the national economy. Alongside the workers, the soldiers took part in construction, expansion and modernization of more than 100 industrial capacities and in such important social-cultural constructions as headquarters of state and cultural institutions, hospitals, theaters, hotels, clubs, sports arenas, apartment houses and exhibitions, and also in development of some seaside tourist complexes. The projects were also continued to build, expand and modernize roads, bridges and highways with heavy traffic, stations and railroads, and to electrify the latter. The outstanding successes in highway construction included the Transfagarasanul National Highway, 89 km long, across the highest mountains in Romania. (53) Evaluating the decisive contribution of the soldiers and engineering units that demonstrated on that occasion their engineering and working capacity, perseverance and resolve to overcome any difficulties, Nicolae Ceausescu pointed out at the inauguration of the impressive achievement that it justified the party leadership in giving the army new capacities to build in the future too. As he indicated in September 1974, "In this way, along with military and political training and improvement of fighting capacity in order to be ready at any time to defend Romania's revolutionary gains and independence, the military will share in the practical work of building the fully developed socialist society and communism in Romania. Ultimately the true capacity for

national defense lies in the nation's economic and political strength and in the unshakable unity of the entire people around the party." (54)

Firmly committed to socialist competition and complete implementation of the investment projects (at the industrial and irrigation worksites), where the quota for the army's participation was raised to more than 6.74 billion lei in the 1971-1975 Five-Year Plan, the army builders displayed a fine spirit of organization, discipline and order and implemented improvements for irrigation in 26 systems, covering over 250,000 hectares or 55,000 more than originally planned, and they completed the tasks at the industrial construction sites 7 months ahead of schedule. Moreover the railroad units fulfilled the five-year plan 134 days early and the road and bridge units did so 100 days early. (55) For all these important successes, over 700 personnel and enlisted men were decorated with orders and medals of the Socialist Republic of Romania and four were awarded the title of Hero of Socialist Labor in 1971-1975. Moreover the UTC Central Committee awarded the Certificate of Honor to 36 communist youth organizations in the army and to 555 young soldiers. The high esteem of the party and the state administration for the soldiers' contribution to all productive work in the national economy was expressed at the assembly of party activists in the army on 10 December 1975. Nicolae Ceausescu said, "Therefore we can say that in the early fulfillment of the five-year plan and in all the progress we have made, the Romanian Army was present not only in the fulfillment of its military tasks but also in its economic activity, making a major contribution to all these achievements." (56)

Through the work done by soldiers at the worksites of the national economy, in agriculture, in the irrigation projects and those to check soil erosion, and in expansion and modernization of the transport network, in addition to its economic importance in itself the army contributes to the training of large contingents of specialists essential to the respective activities and also to the determination and definition of their political-moral character as builders and defenders of the nation, to promotion of the cult of labor, and to the commitment of the young generation to the party policy. The party organs and organizations and the entire army respond in this way to the party secretary general's requirement that the time the soldiers spend in their military apprenticeship shall be a period not only of specialized training but also an advanced political school, so that when they return to civilian life, to the industrial and agricultural units and to education, the young men will fully share in the whole activity and in implementation of the party and government decisions.

In the spirit of the directions of the secretary of the Party Central Committee in October 1974 and the requirements of the 11th Party Congress, the army committed itself more extensively, with its entire ideological and pedagogical potential, to the vast educational effort led by the party. By the middle of 1975, 1,084 military personnel were active in the groups of lecturers of the county party committees, and 3,324 of them belonged to commissions and committees authorized for public activity and to management collectives of the cultural and sports organizations. During the electoral campaign of 1975 over 1,350 military personnel were active in the organization and conduct of activities in enterprises, institutions, schools, houses of culture and cultural clubs, thus making an important contribution to development of Romanian citizens' socialist awareness. In 1971-1975 military personnel made over 25,000 speeches among workers, youth in plants, schools and universities, and in villages as well. (57)



A highly important measure for reinforcing the unbreakable bond between the army and the people was taken in 1975, whereby the military oath was to be taken as far as possible at historic places, in public markets and in other suitable places permitting extensive attendance of youth and workers at these ceremonies.

As an integral part of the Romanian social-political system, the army continued to take part in political, economic, cultural and scientific affairs after the 11th Party Congress, diversifying and strengthening its constant ties with the people. Now more than ever, in this time of ebullient politics, the soldiers of all ranks shared in the work of the party, state and public organs as delegates or guests at the National Party Conferences in December 1977 and December 1982 and the 12th Party Congress, expressing their views on the main decisions concerning the country's future. The army's unanimous support of the ideas in the party secretary general's report to the 12th Party Congress and the decisions approved by that great communists' forum as well as the soldiers' entire confidence in the party members are also illustrated by the election of 11 communists with administrative functions to the RCP Central Committee. (58) Moreover the soldiers participated enthusiastically in the electoral campaign and the elections of 9 March 1980, and many deputies from their ranks were elected to the local state organs and to the Grand National Assembly. (59)

Under the present conditions the soldiers' performance of their tasks in the national economy is undergoing a new stage that has enabled the Ministry of National Defense to cover its production costs out of the incomes obtained and to make a considerable profit. The efforts of the military builders helping to build the metro in Bucharest, of those in the road, bridge and railroad units, and of those contributing to the efficiency of the agricultural campaigns also deserve honorable mention. In the 1976-1980 Five-Year Plan the Romanian soldiers alongside the workers helped to build over 110 capacities of national importance. (60) And in pursuance of the decisions of the National RCP Conference in December 1982 on securing national energy independence, they contributed alongside the miners and petroleum workers to the extraction of large quantities of coal and petroleum, regularly exceeding their plan tasks.

The soldiers also made a vital contribution to construction of that great navigation artery, the Danube-Black Sea Canal, the grand achievement of the Ceausescu Era. The soldiers and military technicians and engineers were always in the first echelon of the great labor battle, honoring their pledges to the supreme command by completing the 40 km on time that were originally planned for construction and by taking additional pledges, also fulfilled on time, in an especially difficult area. That is why the party secretary general also addressed hearty congratulations at the great people's assembly at Argea on 26 May, marking the inauguration of this great capacity, to the soldiers of the Romanian Army, "who performed a large part of the operations and honorably fulfilled their mission." (61)

The soldiers' high moral and political qualities, the correctness and effectiveness of the political-educational work, the great strength of the party organizations and their ability to act in exceptional situations, to maintain the spirit of order and discipline at high levels, and to support commanding officers in any situation were convincingly demonstrated by the army's aid in the efforts to prevent and check the effects of the drought in the summer of 1968, of the floods in 1970 and 1975, and of the earthquake in 1977.

A great many soldiers, tank trucks, motor pumps, fodder sacks and forestry devices were pressed into service in July 1968 in the effort initiated and coordinated by the higher party and state administrations to combat the drought.

The army also fully proved its ability to act in the spring of 1970 when, under party leadership and in close cooperation with other forces, it helped to check the effects of the floods in 38 counties of Romania, intervening in about 350 localities where it evacuated over 66,500 people, 197,000 animals, and 11,000 tons of materials. (62) At the times of greatest urgency, 1,500 officers, military experts and noncoms and 17,500 enlisted men intervened in the stricken areas, with 1,100 trucks, many special motor vehicles, tractors, assault amphibians, motor boats, equipment for building pontoon bridges, helicopters and planes. In all, the army contributed over 500,000 man-days and over 30,000 days of transport means and special transfer means to the effort to check and eliminate the floods. (63)

The army units made reinforcements and superstructures of dikes on the Danube, Someș, Mureș, Siret, Frut and Olt, transported large quantities of foods, drugs, and construction materials, repaired communication lines, railroad embankments and bridges, built barracks for the injured, and lent medical aid. The army's strength and close unity with the people and the socialist nation around the RCP were strikingly evidenced under those difficult circumstances. In the first order of the day of the supreme commander of the armed forces on 18 May 1970 Nicolae Ceausescu said, "Once again we have seen the unshakable tie between the army and the people, the discipline and fine military and moral-political training of the Romanian people's army, the notable organizational qualities of the commanders and general staffs, the mobilizing power of the party organs and organizations, the communists' inspiring example, and the ability of all personnel to act promptly and efficiently in performing their missions." (64) The soldiers enjoyed the same great esteem for their high patriotism and selfless spirit because of their actions during the floods in 1975.

The battle with the waters severely tested some of the many components of the army's fighting capacity. Study of the researched materials leads us to conclude that both in 1970 and in 1975 there was good coordination of the actions and extensive cooperation among the military units, Patriotic Guards, detachments for military training of youth, workers in factories, plants and agriculture and other specialists, and that a valuable fund of all-around experience emerged which, carefully studied, offers important conclusions valid both for commanding officers and general staffs and for the party and youth organs and organizations for the situations that can arise in the course of defensive operations.

The soldiers were highly esteemed for their application and courage and the firm discipline, tenacity, inventiveness and dedication they displayed in the joint actions with the workers to remedy the effects of the earthquake on 4 March 1977. By the order of the supreme commander, the emergency detachments of the army, which totaled about 38,000 men served over 388,000 man-days, took prompt action in lending medical aid to 344 wounded, in removing about 100 survivors from the wreckage, in tearing down seriously damaged buildings, in clearing streets, in transporting foods and other materials, and in reactivating some economic and social capacities. (65) The army made a major contribution to elimination of the effects of the earthquake by helping to restore some damaged localities or by building 5,100 apartments in Bucharest (100 more than the plan tasks) and in

other localities of the nation. In stressing the army's importance as an active and efficient force under exceptional circumstances, Nicolae Ceausescu said at the time, "Once more the Romanian Army has demonstrated that it is and will be with the people under all circumstances and will safeguard their revolutionary gains, independence and sovereignty." (66)

The Romanian Army, the continuer of the finest traditions of the Romanian people's struggle to preserve their national existence and to defend their freedom and independence, is a basic, inseparable component of Romanian socialist society and it is closely integrated in Romania's overall social system.

Resulting from a comprehensive and lengthy activity of the Communist Party, the forms of the army's involvement in the nation's social-political and economic affairs make a substantial and direct contribution to the implementation of the policy of creating a new stage of the nation's rising evolution, the fully developed socialist society, and to the consolidation of its independence and sovereignty.

#### FOOTNOTES

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2. Brig Gen Dr Constantin Olteanu, "Romania in the First Postwar Years. Its International Status Before the Peace Treaty. Its Internal Evolution Before the Proclamation of the Republic (May 1945 - December 1947)," in "Pages from the Military History of the Romanian People," Vol 5-6, Military Publishing House [MPH], Bucharest 1979, pp 446-447.
3. Nicolae Ceausescu, "Romania on the Path of Building the Fully Developed Socialist Society," Vol 8, Political Publishing House [PPH], Bucharest 1973, pp 278-279.
4. SCINTEIA TINERETULUI, No 9, 1 Jan 1945.
5. SCINTEIA, No 366, 31 Oct 1945.
6. For details see Col Dr Constantin Toderescu, "'Participation of the Romanian Military in Restoration of the National Economy in 1944-1947,'" in "The Army and Romanian Society," MPH, Bucharest 1980, pp 418-430. Col Alexandru Condrea, "Social Role of the Romanian Army," MPH, Bucharest 1982, pp 50-51.
7. GLASUL ARMATEI, No 520, 4 Mar 1948.
8. Gh. Tutui, Gh. I. Ionita, "Turbulent Years of the Fight for a Republic," MPH Bucharest 1978, pp 144-145.
9. Archive of the Ministry of National Defense (henceforth Arh M Ap N), Higher Political Directorate of the Army (DSPA) reserve, File 19/1948, sheet 164.
10. SCINTEIA No 1151, 21 Jun 1948.
11. Ibid. No 1096, 11 Apr 1948.

12. Arh M Ap N, DSPA Reserve, File 28/1948, sheet 73.
13. Ibid. File 341/1948, Table 15.
14. GLASUL ARMATEI No 541, 28 Mar 1948.
15. SCINTEIA No 1096, 11 Apr 1948.
16. GLASUL ARMATEI No 603, 14 Jun 1948.
17. Arh M Ap N, DSPA Reserve, File 28/1949, sheet 32.
18. Ibid. File 36/1948, sheets 2, 39, 169, 181, 198, 231, 232, 248 and 258.  
File 28/1948, sheets 19, 20, 32, 42, 148.
19. SCINTEIA No 1378, 18 Mar 1949.
20. "Directive for Political Work for Instruction Year 1949-1950," Arh M Ap N, DSPA Reserve, File 190/1949, sheet 23.
21. Arh M Ap N, DSPA Reserve, File 9/1950, sheet 409.
22. APARAREA PATRIEI No 235 (2230), 3 Oct 1953.
23. Arh M Ap N, DSPA Reserve, File 132/1950, sheet 159.
24. Ibid. File 504/1951, sheet 57.
25. Ibid. File 116/1953, sheet 1.
26. SCINTEIA No 2462, 25 Sep 1952.
27. Ibid. No 2462, 25 Sep 1952.
28. Arh M Ap N, DSPA Reserve, File 50/1952, sheet 74.
29. APARAREA PATRIEI No 287 (1971), 3 Dec 1952.
30. Arh M Ap N, DSPA Reserve, File 161/1953, sheet 49.
31. In 1959-1961 alone 22,000 auto mechanics, drivers and tractor drivers were trained or improved. Most of them were sent to the sectors of agricultural work (Arh M Ap N, Microfilm Reserve, roll F II 3288, frame 452).
32. SCINTEIA No 3660, 28 Jul 1956.
33. Arh M Ap N, DSPA Reserve, File 7/1956, sheet 25.
34. Ibid. Microfilm Reserve, roll F II 2863, frames 494-495.
35. Ibid. roll F II 2899, frame 710.
36. Ibid. Reserve 467, File 23/1959, sheet 357, File 6/1960, sheets 179-180, File 5/1964, sheet 109.



37. Ibid. DSPA Reserve, File 5/1960, sheet 288, CPS Reserve, File 8/1965, sheet 234.
38. Ibid. Reserve 467, File 23/1960, sheet 14.
39. Ibid. File 5/1960, sheet 15. Reserve 467, File 6/1963, sheets 34-36, 179-180.
40. Ibid. File 5/1960, sheet 16.
41. Col Dr Constantin Toderascu, Col Ion Fetcu, "Characteristic Lines of Development of the Romanian Army Set by the RCP in 1955-1965," in "Pages from the Military History of the Romanian People," Vol 9, MPH, Bucharest 1981. p 141.
42. Nicolae Ceausescu, "Romania on the Path of Building the Fully Developed Socialist Society," Vol 9, p 271.
43. Ibid. Vol 9, pp 519, 521.
- 43a. In the discussion of the Draft Directives of the Ninth RCP Congress about 22,200 soldiers and civilian workers took the floor, and in the discussion in the party organizations of the draft regulations of the RCP 32,556 party members and candidates attended, 8,171 of whom took the floor. In the discussion of the Principles and Draft Directives of the 10th RCP Congress over 8,000 communists and 15,000 UTC members took the floor (Arh M Ap N, CPS Reserve, File 10/1965, sheet 6, File 47/1969 p 14).
44. Nicolae Ceausescu, "Romania on the Path of Building the Fully Developed Socialist Society," Vol 8, p 521.
45. "The Romanian Army," MPH, Bucharest, 1978, p 20.
46. Arh M Ap N, CPS Reserve, File 17/1968, sheet 19.
47. Ibid.
48. APARAREA PATRIEI, No 10 (6265), 12 Mar 1975.
49. Nicolae Ceausescu, "Romania on the Way to Completing Socialist Construction," Vol 1, PPH, Bucharest 1968, pp 248-249.
50. Col Mihai Inoan, Col Tudor Tamas, "The Army's Social Function," MPH, Bucharest 1973, pp 128-129.
51. "The Romanian Army," p 54.
52. "Nicolae Ceausescu, "Romania on the Path of Building the Fully Developed Socialist Society," Vol 4, p 595.
53. "The Romanian Army," pp 51, 53.
54. Nicolae Ceausescu, op. cit., Vol 10, 1974 p 769.



55. "The Romanian Army," p 54.
56. Nicolae Ceausescu, op. cit., Vol 12, p 257.
57. Brig Gen Victor Voichita, "Ideological and Cultural-Educational Work Done by the RCP in Creating and Strengthening the People's Army," in "Pages from the Military History of the Romanian People," Vol 4, MPH, Bucharest 1977, p 341.
58. SCINTEIA, No 11588, 24 Nov 1979.
59. APARAREA PATRIEI No 11 (6526), 12 Mar 1980.
60. Ibid. No 26 (6698), 29 Jun 1983.
61. Nicolae Ceausescu, "Speech at the Great People's Assembly at Agigea, 26 May 1984," SCINTEIA, No 12988, 27 May 1984.
62. "The Romanian Army," p 64.
63. Arh M Ap N, CPS Reserve, File 27/1970, sheets 12-13.
64. Nicolae Ceausescu, "Romania on the Path of Building the Fully Developed Socialist Society," Vol 4, p 911.
65. "The Romanian Army," pp 66-67.
66. Nicolae Ceausescu, op. cit., Vol 14, p 148.

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